The Nation.

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The Week.

THE tariff debate has begun at last. Mr. Wilson's opening speech is of a very high order. He begins by showing what has become of the vast surplus left in the Treasury by the first Cleveland Administration. The cash balance in the Treasury at that time was $185,000,000. This was the amount that Secretary Windom acknowledged to have received from Secretary Fairchild. Where is it now? What has become of an *annual* surplus of $105,000,000? Why is the Government confronting a deficit of $28,000,000, or $50,000,000, or some other unknown amount, notwithstanding the fact that the sinking-fund appropriation, amounting to nearly $50,000,000, has been dropped from the public accounts? Mr. Wilson does not indulge in any railing accusations on this subject, but points out the undeniable fact that the present strained condition of the Treasury is not due to the party or the policy that he represents. He shows, too, that the arrangement of the national finances under the Republican régime of the past four years has been such as not only to deplete the Treasury but to increase the taxes on the mass of the people, and to create bounties and privileges to particular classes.

Looking at these particular interests, and especially at those of wool, coal, and iron ore, Mr. Wilson makes an unanswerable argument in favor of putting all of these articles on the free list and of reducing correspondingly the duties on the articles into which they enter. The great merit of Mr. Wilson's speech is the fearlessness with which he attacks these intrenched shams. He shows how they have grown bolder and more impudent with the lapse of time, until everybody who is protected at all thinks that he ought to have a prohibitory duty, so that the consumer shall not buy anything except at his shop. It is upon this beautiful theory that a duty on coal is still demanded. Nobody considers coal-mining an infant industry. Nobody pretends that coal can be mined more cheaply in Nova Scotia than in this country. Yet we are asked for a duty on coal that will enable railroads to carry it from the western slope of the Alleghanies to the eastern boundary of Maine, and this in the name of protection. This is only one of the monstrosities of the present system which Mr. Wilson has struck in the face. The value of his speech consists more in its spirit than in its detailed analysis. It assures us that the bill which he has presented is to be passed without unnecessary delay, and in spite of the new non-voting tactics adopted by the Republicans. There is some danger of the latter making themselves ridiculous. If they persistently efface themselves from the list of yeas and nays, the public may forget that there is any such party in the House.

The letter of Mr. Andrew Carnegie on tariff reform which the *Tribune* published on Monday, is something like the report of the Tariff Commission of 1882-1883. That report was in part the work of H. W. Oliver, jr., Mr. Carnegie's fellow-laborer and capitalist in the iron and steel trade, and almost as distinguished as he. Mr. Carnegie now stands where Mr. Oliver stood ten years ago. Both maintain that it is not a mere blind, unreasoning outcry that leads to the political movement for lower duties, but that there is a sound conservative sentiment at the bottom of it which ought to be respected. They agree also in thinking that American industry, even from the protectionist standpoint, has more to gain than to lose by acquiescing in a moderate measure like the Wilson bill or the Tariff-Commission bill of 1883 than in an unceasing battle and the uncertainty which attends it. Upon this point Mr. Carnegie is very strong. The Democrats, he says, if allowed to pass their bill, would not attack their own tariff. Some years of peace would be secured, and that would be worth far more than a temporary victory to be followed by a new agitation. Of course the *Tribune* is greatly disturbed by this view, because it wants a tariff for politics only.

It has already been announced that the Carnegie iron and steel works have taken the place formerly held by the Britishers as bugaboos to the American manufacturers. In other words, the Carnegies have so far outstripped all their domestic competitors in the completeness and perfection of their machinery that the latter need protection against Carnegie rather than against John Bull. This is especially true in Pittsburgh, where we are told that the condition of the poor and of the unemployed is rendered worse every day by the continued operation of the Carnegie rolling-mills. The reason is that he does work at such low rates that other mills cannot make any money. This may be true, but the tariff supplies no remedy for such a condition. It is a condition which has its parallel in many other places and trades. Confining our present view of it to the iron and steel trade, there is no room for doubt that this country can hold its own with Great Britain or any other nation on terms of equality as regards the principal products, and that the tariff no longer has any protective element in it except as to a few specialties. Nobody who has to compete with Carnegie need fear competition with anybody in England.

The latest Hawaiian news leaves our annexationists with their thirst for blood still unslaked. Minister Willis's quiet "Good-day, gentlemen," at the close of his conference with the provisional government, was an indescribably base betrayal of those who had their gory headlines and their articles of impeachment all ready. In his statement he regretted the delay which had marked the action of the United States, but truthfully said that it had been unavoidable. If the decision which he communicated to the provisional government on December 19 could have been made on March 19, or even on April 19 or May 19, there is no doubt that it would have been speedily acquiesced in. At that time the attitude of all parties in Hawaii was that of awaiting the finding of the President of the United States as arbitrator. But the lapse of time necessary for the President's full and patient investigation left opportunity for the provisional government to strengthen itself so that it is not surprising that it should now decline to relinquish power. On what grounds it bases this refusal will not be known, apparently, until President Dole's answer reaches Washington. Meanwhile, Minister Thurston, who left this country with the expressed determination to set up an independent Hawaiian republic, now announces that nothing of the kind will be attempted. The present "semi-American government" will be continued. That is a good phrase. The "American" part of the government consists in owning the land and being on the official pay-rolls, and the "semi" part consists in denying the right of suffrage, in taxing the majority without allowing them representation, and in setting up an oligarchy by the aid of a standing army and calling it a republican form of government.

We take pleasure in noting the *Outlook's* denial that it holds to "one code of ethics for individuals and another for nations." It now tells us that "the analogy between the nation and the individual is perfect," in the sense that "if the nation has done a wrong, it ought to be ready to rectify that wrong." But it goes on to say that the analogy is unsound both in logic and in morals in the Hawaiian business, "because

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the nation gave Mr. Cleveland no authority to determine whether the wrong had been perpetrated, or to set it right." What this means, unless it be that the Hawaiian revolution of January, 1893, was not an issue in the Presidential election of November, 1892, we confess we cannot see. There is no question that the nation gave Mr. Cleveland the Presidency, and with it the constitutional right and duty to initiate or withdraw treaties, appoint and receive ministers, and in general direct our foreign and diplomatic policy. The *Outlook* does not specify, and cannot, a single particular in which the President has gone beyond the powers given him by the Constitution, yet it talks as glibly as the partisan press of his "usurpation of power." That, appears to us to be unsound both in logic and in morals.

The Rev. C. M. Hyde of Honolulu, "the only resident missionary of the A. B. C. F. M.," whose treatment of Father Damien brought down on him the scathing comments of Robert Louis Stevenson, says, in his letter to Mr. Blount, that his instructions are, "to induce in the Hawaiians more of the sentiments of personal independence and self-reliance, and to develop that strength of character which shall enable them to withstand the unfavorable influences which have hitherto depressed them, and still exist, from their contact with so large a foreign population." He has been salaried for this work ever since 1877 by the A. B. C. F. M. It is a work which, we need hardly say, would require infinite tact, deep sympathy with the people, thorough comprehension of their character on its best side, and a style of living which would be an assurance of disinterestedness. All these qualifications are apparently wanting in Mr. Hyde's case. He lives in a large and comfortable house, which, as Mr. Stevenson says, is "a cause of mocking in the streets of Honolulu." This house, too, he admits, was supplied by the capitalistic class of foreigners, or the "missionary element," which the native Hawaiians regard as their enemies and despoilers.

That there must be some foundation for this prejudice, we judge from the fact that while Americans and Europeans own 1,052,492 acres of the land of the country, the natives own only 257,457, and the 861,800 acres left to the Government is mostly of poor quality. The monthly pay-roll of the provisional government, too, before they began to weed out, showed that exactly the same sum was paid to American officials as to twice that number of native Hawaiian officials. Such facts as these may be accounted for on grounds not discreditable to the foreigners—although the experience of mankind is against this view—but they naturally keep alive a deep distrust, in the native mind, of the "missionary element." Under these circumstances what are we to think of the policy of sending, at the expense of American Congregationalists, "to induce in the Hawaiians more of the sentiments of personal independence and self-reliance," etc., a man who lives among and makes common cause with those whom they regard as their enemies, and—this is the worst of it—who abuses publicly the people he is sent to evangelize, denounces their manners and morals, and belittles their intellectual capacity? It may be well to have this done, but think of its being done by a salaried missionary. That he has succeeded in retaining his place so long under such conditions shows how much the machinery of the American Board needs overhauling. The Board settled, or rather agreed to leave unsettled, the question of the future of the heathen in the next world. We think it would be well now to examine the mental attitude of the living heathen towards its agents.

The Rev. W. L. Sheldon sent out 500 letters to employers of labor in St. Louis, asking them the following questions.

"(1.) What has been the average number of your employees in ordinary times at this season of the year?

"(2.) How many have you in your employ now?

"(3.) How much of a reduction in wages has been made in your line of business?

"(4.) What percentage of your employees do you think have been accustomed to save something from their wages for a future emergency?

"(5.) Do you think conditions are growing better or worse?"

To these letters he received 254 answers, from every kind of trade and business. To the first two questions the answer was 47,049, and the decrease in this number owing to the financial crisis or anything else was 6,938. Five establishments only reported themselves as having "shut down." In the great majority there had been no reduction in wages. About 11,000 to 12,000 out of 40,000 are supposed to save something out of their wages. This is the kind of work which ought to have been done here long ago by somebody. We dare not say that the condition of St. Louis is a fair specimen of that of other cities, but if it be, it will be readily seen that the situation is not as bad as it has seemed.

Judge Dean of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania rendered an interesting decision last week on the question of boycotting. There was a memorable strike of the building trades of Pittsburgh in 1891, which brought building operations there to a practical standstill for two months over the question of nine hours' wages for eight hours' work. Most of the local dealers in building materials entered into an agreement not to sell materials to contractors who gave employment to strikers. One contractor thus deprived of supplies brought suit to test the question whether such an agreement constituted an illegal boycott. In the lower court he secured a verdict of $1,500. This the Supreme Court reverses. Judge Dean points out that, while the strike of the laborers referred to, and their efforts to prevent men from working, would have been an indictable offence under the common law in Pennsylvania, acts passed by the Legislature in 1869, '72, '76, and '91 gave the men a right to strike, and to prevent others from working except by the use of force. The court reasons thus:

"The moment the Legislature relieved one class, and by far the larger number of citizens of the commonwealth, from the common-law prohibitions against combinations to raise the price of labor and by a combination the price was raised, down went the foundation on which common-law conspiracy was based as to that particular subject."

Furthermore, the deduction is made that "however unchanged may be the law as to combinations of employers to interfere with wages where such combinations take the initiative, they certainly do not depress a market when they combine to resist a combination to artificially advance price." The meaning of all this in simple words is, that it is a poor rule that will not work both ways, and that when labor organizations appeal to the law-makers for some special provision in their interest, they must not complain if the courts extend the same protection to employers.

The latest action of the striking Danbury hatters, who recently expressed their mortal dread of being forced into slavery if they went back to work, is to pass resolutions against any of their weaker members who may be induced to desert their ranks. Their threat "not to speak to nor associate with any such persons" might be endured with Christian resignation, one would think, but they go further and declare:

"That, while living within and not breaking any of the laws of the State or of the United States, we will endeavor by all proper means to make the lives of such persons in this town so unpleasant that they will seek their abode elsewhere, in a place filled with their own kind."

This seems indiscreet in those who are appealing to the public to prevent them from falling into slavery. They never, no, never, will be slaves, but they have no objection whatever to being slave-drivers and cracking their whips over those whose one offence is that they want to support themselves by honest and free labor.

In discussing last week the ballot laws which have been enacted in thirty-six States of the Union, we said that in nineteen of them the Massachusetts method of arranging the names of candidates in

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alphabetical order in groups under each office had been followed. As the laws were originally passed this was the case, but within the past year or more in five of these laws the alphabetical order has been abandoned, and the party-column order adopted in its place. The States making this change are Vermont, Wisconsin, Washington, North Dakota, and South Dakota. The list of States should stand, therefore, as concerns the blanket ballot, as follows: With alphabetical order, 14; with party column, 19. Of the three remaining States with ballot laws, New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, all of which have separate party ballots, the two former are likely to change to the blanket ballot this year—whether to alphabetical order or party column remains to be seen.

Municipal elections were held in the province of Ontario last week, and at the same time a plébiscite was taken on the question of prohibition. The vote was not on the adoption of any form of law, but for the purpose of determining whether the people desire the Legislature to enact a prohibitory statute. The result was an overwhelming majority in favor of prohibition, estimated as high as 100,000 in the whole province. Not only country villages but cities voted in the affirmative, the majority in Toronto being more than 2,000. In these elections, for the first time in the history of the province, women possessing certain property qualifications had the privilege of voting on the liquor question, but only a small minority of those thus qualified—1,136 out of about 5,000 in Toronto—went to the polls. The majority for prohibition throughout the province was so great that the Legislature can hardly fail to enact it.

Despatches from New Zealand give the details of the first parliamentary elections within the British empire held on a mixed (male and female) franchise. The New Zealand women, as a new addition to the electorate, have, as a body, confirmed the political opinions of the men by whom they had hitherto been represented, and to this extent their vote may be called conservative. While the data at hand make it impossible to discern minor influences due to the fresh body of voters, there is no trace whatever of the reactionary effects which, it is commonly assumed, women will import into politics. The New Zealand Government which has just received endorsement is the most radical that the colony has had for many years; the ministry were returned with fifty-four members in a House of seventy-four, of whom four are Maoris, or native members; thirty-three of the old members failed of reëlection, and this modification of the lists suggests that the new electors have taken their duties seriously, and exercised judgment in the selection of candidates. Among the issues of the election were secular education and local option, but even on the liquor question the women have shown much less partisanship than was expected, as but twenty-four of the fifty-four Government members are known to be in favor of a direct veto on licenses by a majority vote of the local electors. It is worth mention also that but one prominent member of the Opposition failed to retain his seat. To quote the London *Times*: "The result decisively scatters any fears of a sex vote, and testifies to the discrimination and wholesome division of opinion of the new electorate."

The wrath of the anarchists in Europe is being made to work for international amity and peace in unexpected ways. When the President of the French Chamber was able to read despatches of sympathy, on the occasion of the bomb-throwing, from the Speaker of the House of Commons and from Government officials in Italy and Austria and Switzerland, while Emperor William's unofficial expression of horror at the crime was in the newspapers, the general applause witnessed to a spirit of concord between the nations quite unwonted. Already there is talk of an international movement or agreement for the suppression of dynamiters, though it is doubtful if this will come to anything more than a better understanding in regard to the speedy extradition of persons charged with anarchistic crimes against life and property. The important thing is, the growing consciousness that the whole social order upon which modern civilization rests is involved, and that this rises in importance far above any international feuds or jealousies. The anarchists themselves cannot complain of this result, as one of their tenets is the folly of war. They have, in fact, brought upon themselves much obloquy, as men "without a country," because they have argued that the reconstitution of society after their ideas was more important than anything that passed by the name of patriotism, and because their "catechisms," specially prepared for distribution in the barracks, have advocated the refusal to obey orders calling upon the soldiers of one country to attack those of another.

Although Mr. Gladstone's age makes him now one of the wonders of the century, there is no question that it is the main cause of the slow progress of legislation in England. It is generally acknowledged that if he were dead or disabled, the Liberal party would undergo at least a temporary eclipse, and probably a permanent division. The Radicals and Labor party would split off from the old Whigs and the "gentlemen," and the Tories would have execution of them for at least one Parliament. It is very questionable whether the English Radicals care greatly about home rule, but they cannot dispense with the eighty Irish votes, and they are overawed by the Premier into believing home rule to be a necessary Radical measure. How long they would continue to believe it after Mr. Gladstone's withdrawal, is a question not easily answered. The Conservatives see all this, of course, clearly enough, and probably exaggerate Mr. Gladstone's importance to his party, and they have, therefore, ever since 1886 made delay and obstruction the keystone of their policy. They kept the last Parliament sitting almost to the last moment, obstructed the home-rule bill on pretence that they wished longer time to debate it, and are now obstructing the parish-councils bill, undoubtedly with the expectation that any day may bring the news of the premier's death or break-down. The bill is really not a contentious measure. Although Lord Salisbury has thrown some ridicule on it, the bulk of the Conservatives are actually well content to let it pass. The power it gives to the villages is now a matter of comparative indifference to the landholders, who have already lost most of their influence in the country through the ballot and the county-councils bill, and above all through the decline in the value of land.

Their persistent opposition to the bill is, therefore, aimed in reality at the home-rule bill, which may be introduced in the spring if this is put out of the way. Or if the home-rule bill is not introduced in the spring, there may be a dissolution in the early summer, and the Grand Old Man may go to the country with such feathers in his cap as the employers'-liability bill, just defeated by the Lords, and the parish-councils bill. Should he, with these two bills and the home-rule bill before the country, win another election, the passage of the home-rule bill would be almost a certainty, because the chief argument against it—that the country had not considered it—would be no longer available. It is not to be wondered at, then, that the Conservatives should be "playing against an old man's life," as Mr. Gladstone has more than once said they were. His own knowledge of this fact makes more astonishing than ever his strength of nerve. To sit night after night opposite to a large body of men who are watching eagerly for the slightest symptom of weakness or infirmity, and to whom his death would be the most welcome news they could receive, must be an ordeal from which youth and perfect health might well shrink. To face it successfully at eighty-four, with the cares of an empire resting on his shoulders, is probably the most wonderful display of vitality recorded in history.

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THE NATIONAL FINANCES.

THE comparative statement of receipts and expenditures of the United States during the month of December and also during the half year is as follows:

	1892.	1893.
RECEIPTS.		
December	$33,066,963	$22,312,027
Half year	194,251,040	151,715,444
EXPENDITURES.		
December	$33,457,999	$30,058,260
Half year	190,402,830	189,379,773

This shows a shortage in revenue, as compared with last year, of nearly $11,000,000 for the month, and of more than $42,000,000 for the half year, while expenditures have varied less than $1,000,000 in the half year.

The public-debt statement, issued simultaneously, shows a net cash balance of $90,375,555, all of which, except $9,483,955, is the remains of the greenback redemption fund, which was accumulated by a special sale of bonds in 1877-8 for a particular purpose. In other words, the Government is now meeting its daily expenses in part with money borrowed at 4 per cent. interest. No sophistry can disguise this fact, nor can anybody pretend or imagine that new taxes can be put in working order in time to relieve the Treasury or to stop this shrinkage of the gold reserve. On the contrary, there is every reason to believe that the deficit of revenue for the full year will reach $76,000,000, and that the gold reserve will be reduced to $35,000,000 on the 30th day of June, unless remedial measures are taken meanwhile. Fortunately there is no outflow of gold at the present time, and, therefore, little danger of alarm in the public mind. If there should be such an outward movement, it would be necessary for Congress to act at once to replenish the Treasury by some form of borrowing, and, indeed, that resort, in our opinion, cannot be long delayed.

The facts were presented to Congress by Secretary Carlisle on the 19th of December. There was not time to do anything before the holiday recess, yet the interval might have been well employed by the committee on ways and means in coming to some decision on the points presented in the secretary's report. Instead of this a majority of the Democratic members have voted in favor of an income tax of 2 per cent. on individual incomes above $4,000, and also for a tax on the income of corporations and an increase of the tax on cigarettes, the estimated receipts of all of which are about $42,000,000. Shall this internal tax bill be attached to the tariff bill, or be left to make its own way on its own merits—to stand or fall by itself? Upon this point we have the very decided opinion that if it is patched upon the tariff bill, it will pull that measure down and defeat both. Internal-revenue bills and tariff bills have in almost every instance been passed separately, yet there are precedents for tying them together. The tariff bill of 1883 was one of the latter kind, but it became so, not by the choice of the two houses, but through a parliamentary tangle. If the committee should attempt to carry an income tax on the back of a tariff bill now, it is probable that a number of Democrats would deem themselves absolved from any party obligation to support a measure thus weighted, and would vote against the whole, in obedience to the demands of their constituents. This would disintegrate the party even if it did not defeat the bill, whereas if it should defeat the bill altogether, it would kill the party. The people would say that the Democrats had been preaching tariff reform for twenty years, and had succeeded in making it the distinctive if not the sole issue in politics, and had finally carried the country on that issue, but were not able, even with the House, Senate, and Executive in their hands, to carry their ideas into effect. What else could follow but the trampling of such a party under foot?

Since the Government really has no money of its own at present, but is living on the greenback redemption fund, the first step to be taken would seem to be some provision for raising a loan in an honorable way. Upon this point our esteemed contemporary the Cincinnati *Southwest* thinks that there would be danger in the plan of giving the secretary of the treasury power to issue exchequer bills, or interest-bearing Treasury notes, at any time, to meet shortages of revenue. It says:

> "During Mr. Cleveland's first administration it was a surplus of a hundred millions, and now it is a deficit of similar magnitude that we have to cope with. For almost a generation our Congresses have never cared a straw whether our revenues balanced our expenditures. With the almost irresistible energy which every Congressman develops in the direction of extravagant appropriations for his 'deestrict,' we fear that it would be bad policy to make running into debt so easy."

We think that all experience since the close of the war shows that the danger lies in the existence of a surplus, not in the power to borrow money. It was the great surplus left by Mr. Cleveland's first administration that incited the pension-agents and contractors for public buildings and internal improvements and everybody else to "go for it." They did go for it and they made short work with it. They emptied the treasury in short order. Now, does anybody suppose that this looting would have taken place if there had been nothing to loot? Would the Billion-Dollar Congress have dared to pass those bills if it had been necessary to borrow the money to pay the appropriations? Assuredly not. There is nothing that the American people are so much averse to as borrowing, and there is nothing that they give so little heed to as spending a surplus.

THE GRAVER EVILS OF THE INCOME TAX.

THE discussion of the proposal to levy an income tax on all incomes above $4,000 has mostly proceeded on the lines of expediency, fiscal and partisan. Looked at solely from that point of view, the proposed tax cannot be defended, as it is perfectly certain to prove inquisitorial in operation and wasteful and diminishing in collection, while nothing can be clearer than that it would be fatal to any party making itself responsible for it. But there are other aspects of the matter which are far more important to those who watch our social and political development with anxiety, and which, to them, are decisive of the case.

That it would be a piece of unblushing class legislation even its advocates do not deny. Indeed, that very fact is what commends the tax to them. They want to get at a class of men who, they say, do not contribute to the Government in proportion to their means, and to put the screws on them. They assert that the tax would be highly "popular," and thereby, as Congressman Cockran has truly said, confess that it is unjust. It could be popular only because it appeared to the masses to relieve them and to make a comparatively few citizens sweat. That is class legislation of the most vicious sort. Beside it the bounty and protective laws which we already have, and which the present Congress was elected to abolish, are innocence and equity personified. The Democratic party floated into power on the wave of indignation which the favoritism of Republican legislation had aroused, and if it now proceeds to give us laws of which the little finger is thicker than the loins of tariff and bounties, it will find, unlike the poet, that there are many who fear the wagging of an ass's ears, and will have neither part nor lot with it.

The ever-increasing demands of the protected classes would be nothing compared to the accelerating evils of such socialistic legislation. To set off by themselves a class of citizens who may be considered fair game for demagogues, would be an experiment of which the issue could only be disastrous. If the people having an income above $4,000 can be spoliated to the extent of 2 per cent., why not 5 or 10 or 50? What check would there be on national extravagance when the wealth of the entire country could be drawn upon without limit? And, conversely, if the Democratic party has suffered and our politics been corrupted by the large money contributions of the protected manufacturers to campaign funds, what an orgy of vote-buying and legislature-purchasing would be sure to result when all the large property-owners of the country were driven to lavish political outlay in order to protect themselves from spoliation! What could ballot-reform or corrupt-practices acts

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do to prevent the demoralizing irruption of the moneyed classes into politics, who would always be ready to spend one-quarter of their all in order to save half of it?

It is said the rich largely escape taxation under customs laws and internal-revenue statutes. This is by no means so clear as is often assumed, though it may be admitted that, under the ingenious arrangements of McKinley, the poorer classes are disproportionately taxed. But federal taxation is not the only kind, is not the most important kind, of taxation in this country. State and municipal taxation surpasses it in amount many times over. Who pays this tax, and who escapes it? Everybody knows that it is the large estates and the middle classes upon which this burden mostly falls, and that the poor are almost entirely freed from it. Here is another powerful argument against the income tax, that it tends to exalt the national government over the local government, to extend the mischievous idea that the federal government and federal politics are the only things for the citizen to concern himself about, and that all legislation must more and more be confided to a great central power which insensibly shades off into the all-wise and benevolent State of the socialists.

Finally, it is said that, even if all this is true, the aggregation of wealth in private hands is so great a danger that it must be attacked at all hazards and by any means. This is a thoroughly Populist position, theoretically, and, practically, it completely overlooks the means by which wealth and its blessings are, in the long run, invariably diffused through the community. If a rich man is a niggard, the chances are ten to one that his sons will be spendthrifts, and a hundred to one that his grandsons will be, if the family lasts so long as the third generation. The devil, or Providence, as one chooses to consider it, has a fateful way of breaking up great properties in this country, so that, looking merely at the typical miserly rich man whom the Populist is aching to get his taxing hands upon, it is certain that, all in good time, "distribution will undo excess and each man have enough."

On the other hand, the philanthropic rich and the effect on them of laws aimed at their property are altogether left out of the Populist account. Yet it is certain that they give up every year of their wealth for the public good, if not for wasteful legislation and for socialistic schemes of state industries, sums of money far vaster than any system of taxation could possibly extort for them. Take Mr. Rockefeller, for instance. He is a man for whom, personally, we have no particular admiration. But he is precisely the kind of man, growing rich out of public franchises, whom the Populists have in mind as fit subjects for spoliation. Yet to Chicago University alone he has given, since its foundation, upwards of $3,500,000, while his other charities during the same time must bring the total up to $5,000,000. Could any such sums have been wrung from him by any conceivable system of taxation? On the other hand, if he and men like him were singled out for special and onerous taxes, would not the certain effect be to dry up the streams of their public benefactions? It ought to be clearly understood that if the wealthy classes are to be set off by themselves as subjects of burdensome and increasing taxation, the result will be sure to be, partly through diminishing their ability and more by diminishing their good will, to cut off the support of hospitals and libraries and museums and colleges and churches, for which now such large and constant demands are made upon their generosity.

THE REPORT AGAINST MR. HORNBLOWER.

It is unfortunate for Mr. Hornblower and for the country that his rejection by the Senate committee should have political importance, but such importance it has. The professional objections to him have never been serious. To say that he is young for the place is to disregard many precedents and to err grossly about human maturity. A man who at forty-two is not fit for any place calling for judgment, knowledge, and discretion is sure never to be fit at all. The cases are, indeed, rare in which any advancement based on merit comes to a man after that age. It is literally the meridian of life. He may subsequently have a larger practice, but he cannot deserve it more. We should be indeed fortunate if we could get all our federal judges at that age, so that we should have a fair prospect of thirty years of service from them on the bench. The objections to him touching the nature and amount of his practice, have been equally trivial. They have been urged in the main by two obscure lawyers whose enmity he has excited in the course of his practice, and who have gone to heavy expense in printing and travelling in order to vilify him. The opinion of the bar of this city and State has been unmistakably on his side. We believe that a vote of Mr. Hornblower's own profession would place him among the *dignissimi*. Moreover, he will lose nothing by comparison with all the appointments to the Supreme bench hitherto made by either Mr. Cleveland or Mr. Harrison, and this we say while admitting that Mr. Harrison's appointments were exceptionally good.

What, then, has led to his rejection? A combination of causes. It cannot be forgotten that he was one of two lawyers whose presence on the committee of the Bar Association which investigated the election frauds of last year, Maynard specially asked for. It was, therefore, a deep mortification to Maynard and his partisans, familiarly known as "the Hill crowd," when these two lawyers joined in the anti-Maynard report. It is a cardinal rule of the corrupt politics in which Hill and his people revel, that not only should an agent never be deserted, but that an enemy should never be forgiven. They were, therefore, bound by the constitution of their ring not only to nominate Maynard for the Court of Appeals, but to slaughter any of his judges on whom they could lay hands. Their opportunities of revenge are few, for, we believe, no member of the committee is in politics, or is, or is likely to become, a candidate for any political office. It was, however, Mr. Hornblower's evil fate to be selected for a place which brought him within the range of Senator Hill's malice. The "courtesy of the Senate," which assumes that the greatest rascal who gets into that body will consider the public good in passing on nominations made from his own State, doubtless powerfully aided in staving off confirmation or defeating it.

But there were other causes, perhaps just as powerful, which it would be foolish to ignore. One is the absolute lack of public spirit in the Senate on both sides. The great men of other days are gone out of it. The men who fill it are all engaged in the smallest kind of partisan politics. Even Senator Hoar, who is supposed to be the last heir of the great traditions of the body, is probably occupied just now far more with stirring up strife in the Democratic party than in providing good judges for the Supreme bench. In other words, the tariff, being regarded by so many men as a question of property, produces a bitterness and unscrupulousness in everybody who has an interest in it, which destroys all real regard for any function of the government which does not propose to fill his pockets. There is nothing sacred for a high-tariff man when brought to bay. "I will beat Wells if I have to mortgage the mill," said a Connecticut manufacturer, and doubtless many a Senator would help put a Maynard in the Supreme Court if he were sure it would embarrass the President or increase the number of his enemies. It is a notorious fact that a large number of them to-day occupy themselves in trying to find out what he wants in order to prevent his getting it. He has not grown in the affections of political men since his election. On the contrary, the hatred which led them to scout the idea of his nomination and caused them to witness his election with dismay, has been greatly aggravated by his reappearance in the presidential chair.

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We should like to stop here, but it is due to the history of our time to say that the President has done little or nothing either to disarm hostility or to increase the number of his friends. He is not "magnetic," and if we said he had winning manners, we should depart widely from the truth. Ever since he came into office, he has almost studiously ignored his chief supporters of 1884, 1888, and 1892. He has not sought their counsel, and he has apparently tried to forget that they ever served him. His allusions to the civil-service reformers in his message to Congress and in his letter to Mr. Van Alen were very unfortunate coming from a gentleman who owed them so much. The notion, too, which at times has seemed to possess him, that he could in any way consistent with his character and principles conciliate his enemies in this State, showed a surprising simplicity in a gentleman who had lived among them so long. Either he or they would have to undergo a complete change of heart in order to live together in amity or to work in concert. A very small experience of them, together with a very small modicum of worldly wisdom, would seem to have prescribed to him, when he took office, the propriety of fostering the devotion of those who compelled his nomination and secured his election. They were what is best in the Democratic party as well as in this community, and the only men who can give the Democratic party any future after Mr. Cleveland's career is closed. The notion that Hill and Murphy and their kind can ever commend that party to national favor or acceptance is surely a great hallucination. It must live, if it is to live, by the presence in it of such men as Mr. Cleveland and his anti-snappers, who alone saved it from total wreck at the last election. Everybody else in it was totally discredited with the country at large.

NEWSPAPER SOCIETY.

An evening journal in this city received the following by special messenger a few days ago:

"Sir: In publishing names of attendants at the Charity will you kindly mention Mr. and Mrs. ———! If you mention costumes, Mrs. ——— in pink and Nile novelty satin 'décolleté,' old lace, diamond ornaments. We were late and missed the newspaper men. If there is any charge, kindly let me know by bearer, and greatly oblige.

"Signed by Mr. ———."

What is interesting about this is the belief it reveals that some portion of the public carefully peruses the lists of people at charity and other public balls, notes who was there, and makes a mental image of the costumes. But this again is based on a still profounder faith, that by getting into the newspapers you get into "society." If the public only knew the extent to which the givers of teas, receptions, and little gatherings of all sorts coöperate with the reporters in getting an account of these festivities into the "society column" of the morning papers, it would read that column with renewed zest. "Society" in New York really means nothing except a collection, more or less large, of people who invite other people to their houses, either to dinners or to dances or to parties of some kind. It connotes nothing as to manners, or education, or birth. As soon as a man or woman begins to do this, he or she is on the way to society. By persistently issuing invitations to entertainments for two or three years people at last begin to accept them, and the aspirant is "in society," and becomes a "society man," or "society woman," or "society girl," as the case may be. But it stands to reason that no such rapid progress would be possible without the aid of the press. Being a candidate for society would be a very tedious business if nobody knew it but the people who get your invitations. So the reporters are called in, and through them it is given to the world that on a certain afternoon Mrs. A gave a tea, which was attended by Mrs. B, Mrs. C, and Mrs. D, and Miss G, and so on.

Now the effect of this on the outside world is very curious. The great body of the readers believe that there was at Mrs. A's a very brilliant gathering, and that she and her company are, so to speak, "in it" up to their eyes. If it were not so, why should it be in the newspapers? And once Mrs. A's social doings get into the newspapers, they really never get out of them as long as money lasts. Teas, receptions, and dinners succeed each other in rapid succession, and at the close of the season the "newspaper man" follows Mrs. A to Bar Harbor and Newport, still keeping up the popular excitement about her doings, until her triumph is assured. Publicity, in other words, carries the day. To the outside world the "society column" is paradise, where the men and women live in silks and satins and drink champagne all day long, and are eagerly watched by mankind. In reality it is a region of very hard work and some anxiety. Mrs. A has to get as much space as Mrs. B, and "newspaper men" are notoriously slippery customers and have to be cajoled and "placated." Then it is very hard to make them get the costume right without giving it to them yourself in writing, and once you do this you are in the creature's power for ever, and he can trample on you as he pleases.

No account of the troubles of newspaper society, however, would be adequate which said nothing of the snares set for it by enterprising press speculators. Of course this passion for publicity is well known to the great army of publishers of one sort or other who try to make a living out of the weaknesses of their fellow-men. These gentry are naturally constantly occupied with the invention of modes of extracting "honest dollars" out of people's anxiety to be thought members of the world of fashion. Their activity has been greatly increased since a foolish and ridiculous man set down the number of New Yorkers who could be said to belong to "society" at 400, but without giving any list of names. This exact definition of the number was all the speculators wanted, and they at once set to work printing lists of their own, and of course they could not be expected to put anybody on the list for nothing, and they were sure of a sale of four hundred copies of the work to those who knew they were in it, four hundred more to those who hoped to be in it, and at least four hundred to those who wanted to see who were in it. Other speculators, of course, got up lists of their own, and the "Four Hundred" became a newspaper synonym for aristocracy. The aristocracy of New York then underwent more mutations in a month than that of France or Venice in a thousand years. The way estimable citizens, male and female, were kicked in and out of the Four Hundred by rival newspaper men was a sight which ought to have moved the sternest to tears.

There is even now a speculation under way, carried on by a body of unknown persons, doubtless live journalists, calling themselves the "Historical Company," which we think will tickle "society people" terribly. The company sends you a circular, acknowledging that you are a conspicuous member of "the Four Hundred." You are touched by this. You feel that these fellows evidently know who's who, and you read on. You find that the biographies of the Four Hundred are going to be published, and for this purpose you are asked for particulars about your birth, parentage, education, and situation in life, and about your ancestors for three degrees, fuller than any French *juge d'instruction* would require in a murder case. If you do not answer, this list of the Four Hundred will probably appear without you, and there you are. If you do answer, you probably will have to lie freely in order to make your antecedents respectable. If you do not lie, and your antecedents are not respectable, how will you ever show your face at the teas? The rascals who have got up these dilemmas of course care nothing about your feelings. They simply want to make a little money, and they will probably make it.

ITALY AND THE TRIPLE ALLIANCE.

Rome, December 26, 1893.

It suits France to assume that the Triple Alliance is the cause of the Italian financial embarrassment, and it pleases the republicans and radicals of Italy to repeat it, but in point of fact the Alliance, by means of the military confederation, enables Italy to provide for her

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security from attack by land with a much diminished army. The Italian army at this moment is only about 160,000 men under arms, hardly enough for all the garrison duties and the public security, and this number includes the carabinieri, who are more policemen than soldiers. It is perfectly well known, and I have the highest official assurance of the fact, that the treaty of the Triple Alliance imposes no conditions as to the force to be kept under arms by either of the allies; but as the enemy against whom all the members of it had to provide was chiefly France, and in the alternative Russia, and the only desire of the central powers was peace and a successful defence if war came, the confederation of the central powers enabled each to diminish its force, and I know that the strength of the army is really much less than it would be considered prudent to leave it if Italy were isolated. It is now less than that of the English army. The great gain of the two northern powers by the alliance was the security of Austria against an attack on the south in case she should be engaged with Russia, and an aggressive part in a possible campaign has never been expected of Italy.

The total cost of her army this year is less than $50,000,000, and when we consider that the army is the great school of the nation, the most efficient means of reducing it to unity and homogeneity, that the total budget of the kingdom is a milliard and a half of lire, more or less, of which the army takes about the sixth, it cannot be said that the military expenses are the ruin of Italy. The fact is, and the recent outbreaks in Sicily show it, that the army is not large enough to secure order and legality in the kingdom. The present Government of Italy is gathering the fruits of ages of misgovernment as well as of extravagance during the past thirty years. State property to the amount of three milliards of lire, or six hundred millions of dollars, has been wasted in various ways, but mainly with the purpose of avoiding the necessity of taxing the nation to carry on the business of the state; and now, when the patrimony is exhausted and taxation is necessary, it is found that the Government demands sacrifices. Three milliards and a half have been expended in the construction or purchase of railways, of which not a single network pays its expenses and the interest on its cost—partly owing to their construction having been conducted on electoral principles, to conciliate the voters of the provinces served, and partly owing to their bad and wasteful management, so that the railways alone make a deficit in the national accounts of about one hundred millions a year, exclusive of the interest on the bonds for their construction. The army of *impiegati*, the public servants in the vast and complicated machinery of the state, is in most departments double what is required, and diminution is rendered impossible by the number of votes they would influence. Their number is probably much more in excess of the actual needs of the country than that of the army, even if the ranks were full.

The present distress of the country is due to the commercial crisis, due in its turn to the immense inflation of all kinds of business, and especially building, and real-estate operations connected therewith, beginning about ten years ago, and connected more or less with the absurd megalomania consequent on the acquisition of Rome as the capital of the nation and the idea of the third Imperial Rome (offspring, by the way, of Quintino Sella, the pride of Italian finance, not of Crispi, who only came in for the promises and debts which Sella & Co. had made). As long as loans were easy and the income sufficed to pay the interest, all went on smoothly, and it was only when the commercial crisis diminished income that the public began to realize that spending meant, sooner or later, paying. But extravagant expenditure in all directions had become so the rule of the state and the commune that it was impossible to arrest it at once. Rome and Naples became bankrupt, and the Royal Government had to take up their obligations as it had done those of Florence ten years before. Rome alone had sunk 700 millions of lire in works either useless or totally unremunerative, and the state has had to undertake the completion of all the public works. Under various laws, from 1879 to 1885, there were appropriated for public works at the charge of the state 1,610 millions of lire, and for 19 railways voted in the first of those years the expense exceeded the appropriation by 200 millions. All these have had to be paid for in the subsequent years.

As if it were not enough to have overloaded the finances of the state with debts for posterity to pay, the ministries from 1880 to 1885 abolished taxes which at a moderate estimate would now produce 150 millions a year, among them being the grist tax, which would alone now give an income of over 100 millions a year, and the abolition of which has not affected the price of bread in the least or really benefited the lower classes, but which cannot be reimposed. The salt tax, which could be depended on for about 25 millions, was another of the abolished taxes which cannot be restored. This is the way in which the prosperous days of the Italian existence were provided, to be paid for by a mortgaged future, become an almost bankrupt present. But this was not enough. The earlier governments, which earned cheap glory by the contraction of debts for the present, also left it the *corso forzoso* (legal tender, we called it), though they had contracted a debt of 600 millions to abolish it; and what was infinitely worse, they left the finances of the state and the issue of the currency the monopoly of joint-stock banks, arranged in such a way that the banks would get all the profits, if any, and the country all the losses. These banks are now practically bankrupt. They lent their capital during the great crisis of four or five years ago on real estate and other securities which they were legally forbidden to lend on, and they have now a circulation of about 1,000 millions out, and cannot realize on the securities they hold to redeem it if presented, and the presentation is prevented only by the legal-tender provision of the law. The natural result is that the premium on gold is such as to cripple enterprise and add enormously to all the losses and embarrassments of commerce, already almost paralyzed by the bursting of the great speculation bubble.

What share, then, has the military expenditure of less than two hundred and fifty millions a year, and the naval of about one hundred, in the present state of things? Would the withdrawal of Italy from the Triple Alliance enable her to dismiss an army when what she has is not enough to keep order in the state? Could a nation which is one of the most active of the European nations on the sea, be without a navy? Would not exclusion from any alliance, and isolation in Europe, with the risk of a war on the north and another on the west, to say nothing about the accidents which all civilized nations have to risk, compel her to have a larger rather than a smaller army and navy? Even Belgium, protected by treaties in her neutrality, is now obliged to strengthen her army to avert the violation of her frontiers in the impending collision between the greater powers, and Switzerland is busy fortifying her frontiers and putting her armory in order; what chance has Italy, then, to keep out of the broil?

Then we have Massowah, which costs another fifty millions and returns no profit beyond the chance of now and then showing, as just now at Agordat, how well the Italian military organization works and what gallant fellows their officers are, and this we all knew long ago. But this too has nothing to do with the Triple Alliance. Nor has any one of the chief causes of financial embarrassment which now afflicts Italy, except the single fact that she does not sell so much of her wines to France as she used to. And that the exclusivist and protectionist measures now adopted against Italy would have been adopted in any case by the protectionists is made more than probable by their application to Switzerland, which is not in the Alliance. The outbreak of war in Europe, even if Italy were not directly involved in it, would cost her far more than the present system of coöperation in a league the object and up-to-date effect of which has been and is to keep the peace in Europe. It is only through French spectacles that the Triple Alliance is seen as the prime cause of any financial or political trouble to Italy. But the French want war, and mean war, and Italy in the Alliance is another obstacle to this intention. They talk peace, but, as an ex-officer of the war of 1870 said to me last summer: "We want it after we have got back Alsace and Lorraine." And that is what it really means.

W. J. Stillman.

THE SPANIARDS AT MELILLA.

Algiers, December 20, 1893.

No one out of the peninsula during the past few months of hostilities between Spain and the Moors of the Riff tribes can have formed any idea of the prevailing excitement on account of this event. The Spanish newspapers have devoted pages of every issue to the "campaign in the Riff country"—pages of headlines and of glorification of Spain and her soldiers. The calling out of the first army reserves has flooded every city with half-uniformed levies, and every movement of troops has drawn animated crowds to the railway stations. Every railroad and every harbor in southern Spain has been strained to transport soldiers and supplies to the scene of action, and a cabinet crisis almost occurred because the war minister could barely be dissuaded from resigning his portfolio and placing himself at the head of the glorious expedition. All this has furnished plenty of excuse for a display of blatant patriotism and national vanity which, to an American, has in some of its aspects a familiar Blaine or Jingo air. Nevertheless, this "campaign" has been a great boon to the gossips of the cafés and a stimulus to promotion in the army, and as it has brought Spain into prominence among the European powers holding African possessions, of course little consideration is paid to the fact that the expense thus far has exceeded fifteen millions, and has greatly added to the existing financial troubles of the Government.

Melilla itself, as seen at sunrise from the roadstead, presents a wonderfully picturesque appearance, being situated upon and around a high rock jutting out into the Mediterranean. The old-fashioned fortifications, with here and

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there a threatening cannon, the crowded little Spanish houses, with an occasional new barrack; the tents of the soldiers, and the outlying forts on the hills beyond; the heavily laden transports and the grim men-of-war floating on the blue water—all this makes an enchanting spectacle. Indeed, it is not until the crimson rays have faded away into white, and the many clear-voiced bugles have ceased their musical calls to reveillé and to breakfast that one realizes that the curtain has not risen on a new opera, and that the interest of the place lies not in its picturesqueness, but in the purposes and actions of the armed men it contains.

Viewed in broad daylight, Melilla is a surprisingly small place, with next to no attractive houses. Its streets are very narrow and very steep, and it is evident at a glance that the town has not the slightest value except as affording Spain a foothold in Africa and the advantages of an open roadstead for her ships. On the 14th of December, the day of my visit to Melilla, hostilities were still suspended pending the negotiations for peace, so that inspection of the camps was everywhere permitted and there were not even sentries at the landing-place to question a visitor's purpose. The faces of two or three Jewish traders, who looked sadly through the barred windows of the small cell which forms the guard-house, proved, however, that the commander-in-chief, Marshal Martínez Campos, is in earnest in his efforts to check any traffic in guns or ammunition with the enemy. In that portion of the town which lies at the foot of the rock there was a pitiful attempt at a market; stores were few and far between, but there were a number of booths of the usual camp-followers, most of them for the sale of liquors. In an Anglo-Saxon camp of corresponding size, this sale would be suppressed; but a drunken Spanish soldier is a rare sight anywhere. The only building in the least worthy of the name of a hotel was a shockingly dirty place, but so extensive was its business that the privilege of occupying a chair cost five pesetas (about one dollar) a night! So few women and children were to be seen that it was evident that numbers of the inhabitants had withdrawn during the hostilities. One met with quite a number of friendly Moors, and at the landing-place a most interesting crowd of soldiers, sailors, boatmen, Moors, negroes, gendarmes, and civilian laborers could be studied.

From a military standpoint, there is much to find fault with in Melilla. Perhaps the most striking thing in the whole town is the lack of the simplest sanitary arrangements and precautions. With the exception of the tiny square in front of the chief military office building, the streets are very foul. Even in the camps outside the walls there are no evidences of systematic policing, and useful materials are thrown about in an inexcusably careless way, while nowhere is there that neatness ever to be expected of good soldiers. The fortifications are antiquated, and, with the exception of four Krupp pieces, the heavy guns are still more so, dating back to 1850, and in the case of the mortars to 1780, suggesting at once in their appearance the old trophies at West Point. The marshal himself says that the outlying forts are badly located and not well built. They have to be reprovisioned once every eight days, and that at a serious cost of life if warfare be going on. From the electric search-light tower the walls of the new fort were visible, which have since collapsed, owing to the rains. It was the construction of this fort, together with the extension of the neutral zone, which brought about the whole trouble.

At present there are some 30,000 troops in Melilla, and these are commanded by 26 line generals. Throughout, the number of officers in proportion to the soldiers is very large. The regiments are generally small, but have been more or less recruited. One artillery regiment at home had but 300 men to some 35 to 40 officers, I was informed; but this may have been an exceptional case, and doubtless those at the front are considerably larger. At Melilla the light artillery guns were parked in the open air without breech coverings, whereas mules and horses looked well taken care of. The soldiers themselves wore the fatigue working suits, originally of some coarse linen, but they were so campaign-worn it was hard to tell what they had been. The men were in the best of spirits, and, as far as could be judged, made light of their hardships and enjoyed their rations of wine and the *puchero* doled out to them. This latter dish, a sort of soup of peas and other vegetables, forms a large part of the diet of the Spanish soldiers, as well as of the peasants, but it seemed a scanty fare. The English soldiers at Gibraltar spoke of it with an amusing mixture of horror and disgust, combined with a good deal of pity for their Spanish brothers-in-arms, but the latter seemed to relish it, and I saw nothing of the dissatisfaction which, according to French despatches, is universal. A large detachment of men carrying heavy burdens of flour joked and larked as though it was very good fun, and they went, in fact, almost too far with their noise. The soldiers appeared to have a great deal of liberty about town, and in consequence there was considerable wrecking of traders' booths, for which, as an example, one poor fellow was sentenced to be shot. As a whole, the Spanish soldiers are under-sized and under-aged, nor have they a very strong physique. The officers are neat and very soldierly looking.

In the afternoon of the 14th there was a division drill along the beach, across the river, and upon the hills, which are the spurs of a mountain 3,000 feet high, by no means a blot on the landscape. The men marched quickly, executed the skirmish-drill movements well, and, from a distance, appeared to be carefully and ably handled, which was a distinct surprise after what I had seen in Spain. As though to add realism to the picture, blank-cartridge firing was indulged in, and as the manœuvres were executed near the neutral line, small bodies of Moors appeared to watch the spectacle, which was put an end to by a heavy rain. The town of Melilla itself is not well situated, and the opinion has more than once been expressed that it is defensible only against the Moors. It certainly seems as though some modern cannon on the neighboring mountain would speedily render it untenable.

At anchor in the roadstead lay the fleet which recently created such havoc among the Moors by firing upon them suddenly at night by aid of the powerful search-lights. There were six ships in all, ranging from an old vessel with tall spars very much resembling Farragut's *Hartford* to more modern ships. The flagship *Alfonso XII.* added to the martial picture of the afternoon by practice-firing from a bow gun. There were no foreign men-of-war in harbor. On the 18th a gale drove ashore a Spanish vessel which the Moors promptly attacked. The nearest forts replied, but the affair soon ended and the Moors have humbly apologized. In fact, as the expensive fort has fallen to pieces and the Sultan has promised to disarm the belligerent tribes, we shall soon see Spain once more pacific, and doubtless well satisfied at having added another glorious triumph to the many feats of Spanish arms. O. G. V.

Correspondence.

AN OLD-WORLD LESSON.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is not only German professors of philology who were in some way moved by their experience at the World's Fair to sympathize with women in their desire to get access to German universities. Prof. Klein was so well convinced of the fitness of an American woman to become an attendant upon his lectures (what he discourages most aspiring American men-students of mathematics from undertaking) that he brought his powerful influence to bear upon the Prussian Cultusminister upon her account, and has thus caused the doors of the ancient University of Göttingen to open enough to let exceptional women in. It is to be hoped that, when the next world's fair is held, at Berlin, the Harvard College authorities may be sent thither, and may there discover that, even under Old World customs, it is possible for women to listen to great professors in the same room with men with a very high degree of safety to them both. X.

THE ADMISSION OF UTAH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: You say that "because we have several States which ought to be Territories is no reason for making another mistake of the same sort." Most true indeed is this; but, conversely, is that a reason for refusing statehood to a Territory that in an eminent degree possesses all the qualifications heretofore deemed essential in a new State, and especially those of prime importance—population and wealth? The population of Utah in 1890 was 207,905, while the aggregate population of Idaho, Nevada, and Wyoming was 190,851, a difference in Utah's favor of 17,054. The assessed valuation of property in Utah for 1893 (a year of extreme business depression, when values of all kinds were greatly depressed) was $115,114,842; total Territorial debt, $700,000; value of public property, $1,175,459.76.

As to Congressman Harter's objection—"that we do not want any more States until we can civilize Kansas"—that is most unfair to Utah, for it may be that Kansas never can be civilized; and let it be remembered that Kansas, "bleeding Kansas," got its form of civilization from the New England Emigrant Aid Society, and not from the West.

You commend Senator Proctor's bill for annexing Utah to Nevada, and say it is an "ideal solution of a problem which otherwise must apparently always remain on our hands." That problem is Nevada's, not Utah's. It may be answered, it probably will be answered, that Congress and Nevada will decide the question, and that the people of Utah will have to abide that decision. But would not the imposition of the Constitution of Nevada on the people of this Territory, willy-nilly, be an outrage on them and a gross violation of the best traditions regarding the admission of new States? And the further question arises, may it not be unconstitutional? It is safe to say that to-day Utah's population is six times greater than Nevada's, and to annex us to her against our aspirations and will would surely

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be to make the tail wag the dog, and a bob-tail at that. I am sure the *Nation* is wrong when it intimates that opposition to the proposed annexation would come from office-seekers mainly. It would come from the entire people, irrespective of politics.

In Utah we have had a long struggle for the vindication and supremacy of the nation's laws, and to-day they command the respect and obedience of all. The past is past, and all are looking forward to a happy, prosperous, and honorable future as a State of the Union. We in Utah are pleased to think that we have, in the language of Prof. Bryce, a share of that "reserve of force and patriotism more than sufficient to sweep away all the evils which are now tolerated, and to make the politics of the country worthy of its material grandeur and of the private virtues of its inhabitants."

If Utah is not fitted for statehood let her remain a Territory, but we do ask not to be annexed to the pocket borough of Nevada.

Yours very respectfully,

ALFALES YOUNG.

SALT LAKE CITY, January 2, 1894.

[We cannot let our correspondent's historical inaccuracy pass uncorrected. So far from Kansas civilization being a product of New England, the original settlers from that district and New York together were outnumbered by those from Indiana alone, to say nothing of Illinois and Iowa (whence Kansas derived its some-time appellation of the State of the three I's). The problem of civilizing Kansas is still a Western, not an Eastern one.—ED. NATION.]

OUR FOREFATHERS ON FOOTBALL.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of your crusade against football and of what is said for this college pastime (is not a college, sir, a place where they play football—or is this the description of a university?), I send you some old comments on the sport, from which your readers may draw their own conclusions. In Sir Thomas Elyot's 'Boke named the Governour' (1531), after describing various games profitable for exercise, he says:

"Verily as for two the laste be to be utterly abjected of al noble men, in like wise foote balle wherin is no-thinge but beastly furie and extreme violence; wherof procedeth hurte, and consequently rancour and malice do remaine with them that be wounded; wherfore it is to be put in perpetuall silence" (I., p. 295).

In Croft's edition of the 'Governour,' from which the above is taken, occur some interesting notes on the same subject. For example, King James I., in commending athletic exercises to his son, says, in the 'Basilikon Doron':

"I debarre all rough and violent exercise, as the foot ball, meeter for laming than making able the users thereof."

Carew, in his 'Survey of Cornwall' (1602), describes "Hurling," which seems to be the modern football, as "a play verily both rude and rough." He adds:

"The ball in this play may be compared to an infernal spirit, for whosoever catcheth it, fareth straightways like a madman, struggling and fighting with those who go about to hold him. . . . I cannot well resolve whether I should more commend this game for the manhood and exercise, or condemn it for the boisterousness and harm which it begetteth; for as on the one side it makes their bodies strong, hard, nimble, and puts a courage into their hearts to meet an enemy in the face, so on the other part it is accompanied with many dangers, some of which do ever fall on the players' share; for proof whereof, when the Hurling is ended, you shall see them retiring home as from a pitched battle, with bloody pates, bones broken and out of joint, and such bruises as serve to shorten their days; yet all in good play, and never attorney nor coroner troubled for the matter." N. M.

NEW YORK.

TWO RARE EDITIONS OF GASS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: (1.) The catch-title of a certain German publication relating to the travels of Lewis and Clark has haunted bibliography for many years. I first noticed it in 1876, but have been until very recently unable to identify the book to which it refers. As given by Kayser, it reads: "(Lewis und Clarke.) Tagebuch e. Entdeckungsreise durch Nord. Amerika in d. Jahren 1804–6, Aus d. Engl. v. Weyland. Mit. 1 Karte." It is described as gr. 8vo, Weimar, 1815, and as forming Band I. of the "Neue Bibliothek der wichtigsten Beschreibungen," etc. I remarked in my edition of Lewis and Clark that this might be a Gass; and such appears to be the fact, for I have just received, through the attentions of Mr. Francis P. Harper of New York, a German Gass which enables me to lay the ghost in question. Following is the full title:

Tagebuch | einer | Entdeckungs-Reise | durch | Nord-America, | von | der Muendung des Missuri an bis zum Einfluss der | Columbia in den stillen Ocean, | gemacht | in den Jahren 1804, 1805 und 1806, | auf | Befehl der Regierung der Vereinigten Staaten, | von | den beiden Capitaens Lewis und Clarke. | — | Uebersetzt | von | Ph. Ch. Weyland. | — | Mit einer Charte. | — | Weimar, | im Verlage des H. S. privil. Landes-Industrie-Comptoirs. | 1814.

One vol. 8vo, pp. i–x, 1–362, with one map. Title, verso blank, pp. i, ii; Jefferson's message to Congress, pp. iii–v; translator's preface, pp. vi–viii; contents, pp. ix–x; bastard title, verso blank, pp. 1, 2; main text, pp. 3–345; two letters of Clark, pp. 346–362; map at end, 9⅜ inches high by 7⅝ wide.

This is a genuine Gass, with which I have compared it carefully. The translation is a very free one, and undoubtedly was made from the French version of Lallemant (8vo, Paris, 1810), though Weyland may easily have also had an edition in English before him. But that he followed Lallemant appears from the facts (1) that the Jefferson message is prefixed and Clark's two letters are suffixed, as in Lallemant; (2) the twenty-five chapters are each headed with the dates of the Journal which they respectively cover, as in Lallemant; (3) the French translator's notes are rendered in German; and (4) the map is lettered in French, and legended "Carte pour Servir au Voyage des Capnes Lewis et Clarke, à l'Océan Pacifique." I cannot see that the German editor has added anything at all, except the new "Vorbericht des Uebersetzers." In this preface Weyland calls the doughty sergeant "Sir Patrick Gass," and explains that inasmuch as the full history of the expedition had not yet appeared, or at any rate had not reached Europe, the Journal of Gass would answer a purpose for the time being, etc.

I have no doubt whatever that this book is the one Kayser cites. The difference in date (1815 instead of 1814) probably means no more than that the next year another issue, or some of the copies of 1814, were taken up into vol. i. of the "Neue Bibliothek der wichtigsten Beschreibungen." The unwarrantable omission of Gass's name from the title-page has caused the trouble and long delay in identifying the publication. It is to the last degree improbable that any German version of the genuine Lewis and Clark appeared in 1814 or 1815, as the original was not published till February 20, 1814 (see *Nation*, No. 1437). There is no question that the German editor did his work in good faith; this is a Gass complete, though the appearance of Jefferson's message and Clark's letters gives the book the air of one of the apocrypha, and though what Gass's geography, ethnology, and natural history became in passing through French into German is best left to the terrified imagination.

(2.) I lately handled in the library of Minneapolis a Gass which was quite new to me, though Sabin cites it in his Bibliography. It is entitled as follows:

Lewis and Clarke's | Journal | to the | Rocky Mountains | In the years 1804,–1805,–6: | as related by | Patrick Gass, | one of the officers in the Expedition. | — | New Edition with Numerous Engravings. | Dayton, | published by Ells, Claflin, & Co. | 1847.

One vol., sm. 8vo (size of a 12mo, but 8 leaves to a signature), pp. i.-viii., 9-238+1 leaf advts., with many full-page illust., all of which count for pagination—thus pp. i., ii. are frontisp., p. iii. is title, pp. iv.-viii. are preface (dated Mar. 26, 1807), pp. 9, 10 are portrait of Lewis, pp. 11, 12 are portrait of Clark, each verso blank; Journal begins p. 13, ends p. 238.

This is likewise a genuine Gass. It is a fair and full reprint of the original of 1807, without any extraneous text, though the illustrations are all interpolations. These are all, no doubt, the same as those which Ells got up for the spurious Lewis and Clark which he published at Dayton in 1840. I recognize the two portraits as being the same, but have not had an opportunity of comparing the rest. I am glad to find it an honest book—whether Ells wanted to make amends for his misdeed of 1840, or wanted to prescribe good medicine for disorders incident to the "Oregon fever" of 1842. ELLIOTT COUES.

SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION, December 31, 1893.

JUPITER'S SATELLITES IN 1664.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have brought to the notice of three astronomers an interesting letter of John Winthrop (the second of that name), written in 1664 to Sir Robert Moray, in which Winthrop declares that, "having looked upon Jupiter with a telescope," August 6, 1663 (old style), he "saw five satellites very distinctly about that planet." He reports the observation with natural distrust, lest it should be "a mistaken novelty." As the letter (which is printed in the Proceedings of the Massachusetts Historical Society for June, 1878, p. 220) had never been noticed by the three astronomers above mentioned, I make the following extract from it for the entertainment of other scientific antiquaries among your readers. If any one knows what has become of Winthrop's astronomical "tube," perhaps he will inform you.—Yours respectfully, D. C. GILMAN.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
BALTIMORE, MD., December 22, 1893.

JOHN WINTHROP TO SIR ROBERT MORAY.

HARTFORD, Jan: 27: 1664.

In my former I gave your honor an account of the favor I had of your letter by the Hon. Colonell Richard Nicolls. I then omitted to acquaint your honor what now I will be bold to

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add: that havinge looked upon Jupiter with a Telescope, upon the 6th of August last, I saw 5 (?) Satellites very distinctly about that Planet: I observed it with the best curiosity I could, taking very distinct notice of the number of them, by severall aspects with some convenient tyme of intermission; & though I was not with out some consideration whether that fifth might not be some fixt star with which Jupiter might at that tyme be in neare conjunction, yet that consideration made me the more carefully to take notice whether I could discerne any such difference of one of them from the other foure, that might by the more twinckling light of it or any other appearance give ground to believe that it might be a fixed starr, but I could discerne nothing of that nature: and I consider that the tube with which I looked upon them, though so good as to shew very clearely the Satellytes, yet was but of 3 foote and halfe with a coucave ey-glasse; and I question whether by a farre better tube a fixt star can be discerned so near the body of that planet when in the ever bright activity of its light, for, if so, why are there not often if not alwayes seene with the best tubes the like or more. Is not Jupiter often in neere conjunction with them, especiallv *in via lactea?* I have been in much doubt whether I should mention this, which would possibly be taken from a single affirmation but a mistaken novelty: but I thought I would rather beare such sensure than omit the notice of it to such worthy friends as might from the hint of it take occasion to cause more frequent observations to be made upon that planet, & at least this will at length be cleared, whether the light of Jupiter doth not take away the appearance of fixed starrs so neere in conjunction with it, as that they should appear within the periphery of that single *intuitus* by a tube which taketh in the body of Jupiter and that at the same unmoved aspect: and I am bold the rather to mention this as an inquiry whether any such number of Satellites or moons hath beene seene by your honor or Mr. Rooke or any mathematitians or other gentlemen that have good tubes and often have the curiosity to view the planet, for possibly it may be new to me which hath beene more usually knowne by others, though the notion of such a thinge is not new to my selfe, for I remember I mett with the like narration many years since in a little booke intituled Philosophia Naturalis per Joh. Phociliden, though then I thought that was but a mistake of some fixed starrs."

TO SPELL FOR, 'TO INTIMATE A WISH FOR,' 'TO SCHEME TO OBTAIN.'

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: This expression, which I lately ventured in a letter, is one which has been very little investigated. So far as I have discovered, the only lexicographer that notices it is Mr. F. K. Robinson, in whose *Glossary of Words used in the Neighbourhood of Whitby* it is defined, 'to try to obtain by address.' This, substantially, is the sense which it bears in the following quotations:

"Was it not, to every intent and purpose but the technical form of words, a promise? Was it natural, in such a case, for the one party to superadd, or possible for the other to require, a formal promise; or, consistently with the smallest particle of gratitude or delicacy, to *spell for* such a thing in the most distant manner, or to conceive that it would superadd anything to his security?" Jeremy Bentham (1790), *Works* (1838-43), vol. x., p 230.

"Before I had given him anything, he began to *spell for* something." Cardinal Newman (1840), *Letters* (1891), vol. i., p. 429.

"It will be observed, too, in the foregoing letters, that he '*spelled*' *for* the curacy and suggested the idea to me." *Id.* (1860), *ibid.*, vol. ii., p. 105.

Besides that everybody hereabouts employs *to spell for* after the manner of Bentham and Cardinal Newman, I have long and often heard the phrase, alike from gentle and simple, in many parts of England. Is it known in the United States? As being terse, and at the same time free from all tang of vulgarity, why does it not deserve a higher rank than that of colloquialism? The guesses concerning its origin which have occurred to me, since they will readily occur to others, may go unmentioned.

That the *spell for* here considered is in any way connected with *spoil for*, seen in the Irishisms "*to spoil for* a fight," "*to spoil for* an argument," etc., phrases familiar to Americans, seems far from likely. F. H.

Marlesford, England, December 10, 1893.

Notes.

A work in twelve volumes, each distinct, is contemplated (and partly executed) by Mr. Charles S. Peirce, member of the National Academy of Sciences. Its full title reads: 'The Principles of Philosophy; or, Logic, Physics, and Psychics, considered as a Unity, in the light of the Nineteenth Century.' The first volume, which is ready for the press, will be 'A Review of the Leading Ideas of the Nineteenth Century.' Mr. Peirce also issues a prospectus of a limited edition, now in course of printing, in two colors on hand-made paper, at the De Vinne Press, of 'The Epistle of Pierre Pelerin de Maricourt to Sygur de Foucaucourt, Soldier, On the Lodestone.' The original treatise dates from 1269, and "occupies a unique position in the history of the human mind, being without exception the earliest work of experimental science that has come down to us." The transcript of Peter Peregrinus's text has been made afresh from a contemporary MS. in the Paris Library, and is reproduced in black-letter together with a translation and notes. Subscriptions for either work should be addressed to Mr. Peirce at Milford, Pa.

Joel Munsell's Sons, Albany, announce 'The Pioneers of New France in New England,' or the French incitement of the Indians against the English settlements, with documentary French evidence and illustrations. The author, Mr. James Phinney Baxter, is president of the Maine Historical Society.

Mr. A. D. Weld-French of Boston purposes issuing in an edition of 300 copies his 'Notes on the Surnames of Francus, Franceis, French, etc., in Scotland,' with an account of the Frenches of Thorndykes and a discussion of the family connection with the Stuart kings.

D. Appleton & Co. will publish shortly 'Germany and the Germans,' by William Harbutt Dawson, a writer on German socialism; and 'The Greater Glory,' a new novel by Maarten Maartens.

Prof. Boyesen's commentary on Ibsen's plays is nearly ready to be brought out by Macmillan & Co.

From the Scribners we may expect R. E. Prothero's 'Life and Correspondence of Dean Stanley,' in two volumes, 'Psychology, Descriptive and Explanatory,' by Prof. George T. Ladd of Yale, 'The Philosophy of Reality,' by Dr. James McCosh, 'Essays about Men, Women, and Books,' by Augustine Birrell, and a 'Chess Pocket-Manual,' by C. H. D. Gossip.

Thomas Whittaker issues this week 'The Ascent of Faith; or, Grounds of Certainty in Science and Religion,' by Alexander J. Harrison, and 'The Son of Man among the Sons of Men,' by the Bishop of Ripon.

Roberts Bros. will soon bring out 'The Aim of Life: Plain Talks to Young Men and Women,' by the Rev. Philip Stafford Moxom; 'Allegretto,' a volume of poems by Gertrude Hall; and Balzac's 'Memoirs of Two Young Married Women,' translated by Miss Wormeley.

Lee & Shepard have in press 'The Political Economy of Natural Law,' by Henry Wood.

The third volume of Mr. Wheatley's definitive edition of Pepys's Diary (London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan) ends with the year 1663, and has for its two illustrations a photogravure after Sir Peter Lely's portrait of the diarist in the hall of Magdalene College, Cambridge, and a likeness of Sir Samuel Moreland, from a drawing in the Pepys collection.

We notice elsewhere at length the first volume in the collective edition of Huxley's works. Two other volumes of his essays are now at hand, 'Darwiniana' and 'Science and Education' (Appletons). The former contains the brief obituary of Darwin contributed to *Nature*, and the much longer one from the Proceedings of the Royal Society. The latter volume embalms the little skit "Emancipation—Black and White," published on the heels of our Federal triumph in the civil war, which, beginning with some patronizing and slightly contemptuous remarks about the freedmen racially considered, playfully tosses aside the woman suffragists in order to make a serious and just plea for the higher education of women—"Emancipate the girls."

In making designs for Macmillan's edition of Irving's 'Rip Van Winkle' and 'The Legend of Sleepy Hollow,' in one volume, Mr. George H. Boughton must have felt the pleasure of repatriation. His preface recalls his delight, in his cis-Atlantic days, in sketching and roaming along the shores of the Hudson, and his pencil must here have worked *con amore*. We do not find these pictures proof of a special aptitude for book-illustration, or superior to their predecessors. Some are out of scale with the size of the book, and the most successful are vignettes; invention and imagination are sparingly to be detected. Outwardly the book is very pretty.

'Hazell's Annual for 1894' (London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners), though an alphabetical lexicon of current biography and history—"a cyclopædic record of men and topics of the day"—has much enlarged its classificatory "key to the contents," and furnishes at least one brand-new innovation of plain, uncolored maps of out-of-the-way countries, scenes of international contention. Some of the fresh topics are the African transcontinental telegraph now building from Cape Town northward, the cholera epidemic of last year, the Liberator frauds, the Bering Sea question, and the World's Fair. We wish the editor might distinguish his work above all others by giving lists of the members of the French, German, and Italian Parliaments in addition to that of the British. The value of this excellent compendium must not be judged by errors like these in the article on Grover Cleveland, all carried over from last year: "born *at* New Jersey," "Judge Foulger" (for Folger), "*Agnes* Folsom" (for Frances).

'The Year's Art for 1894' (London: J. S. Virtue & Co.) attains its fifteenth annual issue. The name of Marcus B. Huish is replaced by that of his former associate, A. C. R. Carter, as editor, but the scheme is unchanged and could hardly have been improved upon. There are the usual photographic memoranda of pictures exhibited, but, in lieu of the portraits of artists hitherto inserted in classes, we have a good number of faces of editors or art directors of periodicals devoted wholly to art, or eminent for their illustrations, as, for example, Mr. Hamerton of the *Portfolio* and Mr. Gilder of the *Century*. In

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he rear comes the indispensable directory of artists.

The illustrated magazines bid us review them in their bound volumes—for the half year (*Century*), for a year (*Scribner's*). They have the World's Fair in common, together with papers on Florida, on art in Japan, etc. Two books have emerged from the *Century*, Janvier's 'Embassy to Provence' and Salvini's Autobiography, and two from *Scribner's*, Mrs. Burnett's 'The One I Knew the Best of All' and Robert Grant's 'Opinions of a Philosopher.' In point of illustrations, *Scribner's* is the innovator with its colored plates; and all signs point to the multiplication of these hereafter in all the magazines. The California Midwinter International Exposition connects with the foregoing, in a way, vol. xxii. of the *Overland Monthly*, but it also marks the predominant Pacific-Coast character of this magazine, in which we find examples of famous paintings owned on the coast, an account of the longest jetty in the world—viz., at the mouth of the Columbia River—with papers on camping out in Mendocino, the Thlinkets of Alaska, the California fish patrol, the Chinese registering under the Geary act (with a profane photograph of General Grant actually seated at the same table with the heathen Li Hung Chang), a penological reform movement in California, etc. Without exception, perhaps, the cuts are process work, but they are aids to understanding. The illustrations of the *Green Bag* (Boston Book Co.) are wholly personal, and now that the series of this legal periodical has reached a fifth volume, the professional portrait gallery is probably the most extensive and valuable (at least for the American bench and bar) in existence. The character of this periodical, both in the serious and the lighter vein, has been well maintained, and such verse as Mr. Stafford's "A Contrast," on p. 523, does not often find its way into our literary magazines.

Babyhood is a magazine whose name explains its interests. Its medical editor, Dr. Leroy M. Yale, has extracted from the files several hundred letters and his replies, and these the Contemporary Publishing Company of Philadelphia have printed in convenient book form as 'Nursery Problems.' The problems are such as constantly confront young parents, and their solution by Dr. Yale shows competent knowledge and excellent judgment.

An admirable illustration of what is euphemistically termed British conservatism is the persistence with which the identity of typhus and typhoid fevers was held by their physicians. Louis and Gerhard, in the thirties, had satisfied all students in France and America that they were distinct diseases, and physicians at large in both countries accepted this as a matter of fact and acted accordingly. In the British Islands as well as elsewhere they had always been grouped as continued fever, and the suggested differentiation was a novelty not to be countenanced. In 1844 a leading medical quarterly, discussing this very question, held that there is but one kind of idiopathic fever," and it was not until 1849-'50 that the young Dr. (now Sir) William Jenner demonstrated by the closest scrutiny of the conditions before and after death that they were as distinct as measles and scarlet fever, another brace of formerly confused types. His argument was too convincing to be ignored, and inasmuch as British subjects (in both the legal and the anatomical sense) furnished the material, British medicine, about twenty years after its neighbors, fell into line with them in this respect. Notwithstanding the work had already been done abroad, Dr. Jenner's unanswerable essay, which is a masterpiece of scientific observation and analysis, is what gave light to his compatriots; and although the medical profession has long since moved past the epoch it created for his countrymen, it deserves study as a type of argument built entirely upon fact. For his countrymen he broke up continued fever into four varieties, of which those two are the principal. In 'Lectures and Essays on Fevers and Diphtheria, 1849 to 1879,' Macmillan & Co. have reproduced, in a well-indexed octavo that should become a classic, this and other papers on the same general topics, all marked by the same lucidity.

'The Vital Equation of the Colored Race, and its Future in the United States,' by Dr. E. R. Corson of Savannah, a reprint from the 'Wilder Quarter-Century Book,' is an essay whose conclusion is that the future of that race will be inability to maintain itself as a race, and that the world has reached a point where everything must give way to the Caucasian. This has been derived from contemplating the high infantile death-rate, the impaired vitality of the mixed strains, and the low scale of life of the Southern negro, especially in the larger towns. Vitality doubtless is influenced by race distinction, but the figures and the area are neither definite nor large enough to furnish positive deductions. The lesson that seems to us nearest the surface in this paper is the necessity for strong, kindly, persistent action in lifting the blacks by instruction, by sanitary injunction, and by organized charity. This last should stimulate, not pauperize.

We have received the completing section of the fifth edition of Kluge's 'Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Deutschen Sprache' (Strassburg: Trübner). The book has grown by 40 pages, 15 of which are taken up by valuable chronological groupings of the German wordstock, made by Dr. F. Mentz. The new articles contain mostly foreign and dialect words, such as *grassieren*, *Grippe*, *Grog*, *Grosz*, under G. Additions have been made in the chronology and in the geographical distribution of words. Such a dictionary is a growth, and is never made by one man alone, so Prof. Kluge enjoys and acknowledges the continued help of persons known and unknown to him who give valuable hints and make actual contributions. We are surprised that under *Geist* the new edition repeats the statement that Engl. *aghast* means *zornig, aufgeregt*. This word is not a cognate of *Geist*, 'ghost,' anyway. Under *Zettel*, *verzetteln*, English to *ted*, meaning to scatter, might have been mentioned. Compare the U. S. 'hay-tedder.' English *flintlock*, again, is overlooked under *Flinte*. Often the author gives only Anglo-Saxon cognates when the later English would be more welcome: *e. g.*, *dight*, *wont* are omitted under *dichten* and *wohnen* respectively.

The first part of the fourth volume of Prof. D'Ancona's 'Manuale della Letteratura Italiana' has recently appeared, bringing the work down to the end of the eighteenth century. It is pleasant to notice, in the general bibliography and in several of the special ones, repeated and laudatory references to an Italian translation of the well-known treatise of an Englishwoman, Miss Violet Paget ("Vernon Lee"), on the life and literature of a century of which the Italians themselves find it hard to give a satisfactory account.

Count Passerini, the editor of that rather dull periodical, the *Giornale Dantesco*, has undertaken, in connection with the printing-house of S. Lapi in Città di Castello, a series of small works concerning Dante hitherto inedited or rare. The volumes are to appear every month, at a price of less than a lira, and are to contain each more than a hundred pages. The first work published is a collection of notes to the 'Divine Comedy' ('Postille alla Divina Commedia') made by the late Salvatore Betti, and registered as number 666 in De Batines's list of inedited comments. The idea of the series is not a bad one, but there is little to commend in Betti's notes, which are for the most part exceedingly commonplace and fill three of the little volumes.

Early in the lists of 1894 of Successori Le Monnier (Florence) is a careful study of Cardinal Innocenzo Cybo by Dr. Luigi Staffetti. The book is rich in original documents, and gives in sharply defined if rather hard outlines an interesting picture of interesting times. Dr. Staffetti shows up Cybo as a man almost but not quite after Machiavelli's heart, fox and lion united; but in Cybo's case somewhat disproportionately fox. As grandson of a pope, as the most brilliant cardinal of his day, as three times aspirant and once by an accident only not elected to God's vicarship on earth, as long the practical ruler of the states of both Bologna and Florence, as the familiar and trusted friend of Charles V., Cybo appears on the other hand in strange contrast as probable poisoner of the poet Berni and persecutor of the patriot Filippo Strozzi, traitor to his friend Duke Cosimo, and open paramour of his own brother's wife, herself probably the most brilliant woman of her time—and the worst. Dr. Staffetti's work is neither ingeniously apologetic nor frankly indignant, but rather coldly impersonal.

"The Internal Work of the Wind," or the want of uniformity and consistency in the movement of the wind stream, its gusty and intermittent character, and its consequent utilization by birds in soaring to maintain themselves without exertion of the wings, was the subject of a paper by Prof. S. P. Langley, read at Chicago before the International Conference on Aerial Navigation in August last. It was perhaps as original and important as any delivered in all the series of congresses, and one may now read it in the January issue of *Aeronautics*, the "annex" of the *American Engineer and Railroad Journal* of this city. In connection with it should also be read the illustrated account of Mr. Maxim's air-ship in the current number of *McClure's Magazine*, and the (also illustrated) account of a German's experiments in man-flying (or, better, soaring) in *Nature* for December 14, 1893. As the last writer well says, here is promise of fine and tolerably safe sport.

Mr. Waters's "Genealogical Gleanings in England," in the January number of the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, introduce wills of the Boylston and Sewall connections, the Blands of Virginia, of Sir John Davie, one of Sibley's 'Harvard Graduates,' and of William, son of Mary Dyer, the Quakeress who was hanged for her religion on Boston Common in 1660. These in especial; but a great many other families are illustrated in Mr. Waters's skilful groups of testaments.

We printed not long since a communication from a correspondent respecting La Salle's station of Starved Rock on the Illinois River. A slight article on this romantic spot and neighborhood by the Rev. Frank J. O'Reilly, in the *Catholic World* for January, deserves mention chiefly on account of the views which accompany it.

—The 'Biography of the English Language,' by Arthur MacArthur, LL.D. (Washington:

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W. H. Lowdermilk & Co.), has for its object to popularize the investigations of scholars by giving a brief account of the progress of the language from its earliest forms to the present day; but the author overlooks the fact that a certain amount of knowledge at first hand, especially of the older periods, is necessary for this purpose. When we find in the table of contents 'Ancren Riwle' translated "Ancient Rule," and this repeated in the text, it arouses our suspicions, which are more than confirmed by the perusal of the first few chapters. The author has not the most remote conception of the structure of the Old English (Anglo-Saxon) language, speaking of it as "a compound of all the idioms spoken by the warlike invaders," and remarking: "There were four declensions for nouns, adjectives, and adverbs [*sic*], and even the article was declined with the strangest vagaries of inflection"—with much more of the same sort. King Alfred is placed 150 years after Cædmon, Egbert is given to him for a father, and the year of his birth is stated as that in which the Danes "drove him into concealment." The author has dipped into Sir Frederic Madden's edition of Layamon's 'Brut,' but without understanding its language, and there are numerous mistakes in the quotations from it. Errors of the press abound, and in fact there are more errors of all sorts to the square inch than in any work we have ever read. The brief account of the 'Beowulf' (pp. 16, 17) is a caricature, and Geoffrey (not Geoffroy) of Monmouth's Chronicle is spoken of more than once as a "poem." The 'Ormulum' is sandwiched between the "Genesis and Exodus" and "the Ayenbite of Inwit [Inwyt], which means *Again-bite of Conscience*, or Remorse," although the work is professedly historical. Orm is said to use "two consonants in the beginning and end of a word, and some writers have supposed they were placed at the end of a word to denote a short syllable or a long one, but it is not very clear which" (!). His work "is very singularly composed in a Northern dialect," and "of all his contemporaries he is the least regarded as an authority upon the state of the tongue at the time he wrote." After a summary of pronominal forms in the 'Ayenbite' (p. 90): "It will be observed from this summary," the author remarks, "that the adverbs are declined like nouns, and that the numbers and genders of pronouns in the oblique cases cannot be determined by their form, but must be traced back to their substantives." A short course in Old and Middle English would have prevented all this.

—The 'Choephori of Æschylus,' by Dr. A. W. Verrall (Macmillan), is a continuation of that series, the earlier volumes of which by the same editor, the 'Seven against Thebes' and the 'Agamemnon,' have already been noticed in these columns. In completeness of apparatus and in literary ability this edition is almost a counterpart of Prof. Jebb's 'Sophocles,' while in scholarship and in sobriety of judgment it suggests contrasts as well as comparisons with that great work. Dr. Verrall takes his own view of every question, and writes with an ingenuity and *élan* which are interesting even where they do not carry conviction. The chief novelty of the present volume is Dr. Verrall's explanation of the recognition scene, wherein *Electra*, visiting her father's tomb for the purpose of offering oblations, discovers there *Orestes's* dedicatory lock of hair, and recognizes the owner by some magic process of inference which was ridiculed by the rising generation of Athenian critics, apparently, and which has been something of a stumbling-block to classical scholars ever since. A maiden who was separated from her brother in early childhood divines his presence, after many years, on the evidence of a lock of hair and the conformation of footprints which bear some resemblance to her own. Euripides makes much of this apparent absurdity, and ridicules it expressly in a passage of his "Electra," which has been berated by the anti-Euripideans from Schlegel down. Euripides hints that it is a slip of old age; yet this same old age begat the "Agamemnon." The lovers of Æschylus have regarded it as a trivial or pardonable lapse; to our mind it seems that the emotion of the situation—and a good actor—would carry it off successfully before an audience which was not hypercritical.

—Dr. Verrall will not listen to this. He maintains ingeniously, at great length, that the recognition is based on a fact known to Æschylus, viz., that Pelops and his immediate descendants, being from Asia Minor, had some racial peculiarity in the shape of the foot and the skull, something marked in the color and texture of the hair, which distinguished them from the Achaian race among whom they had settled. This is felicitous if true, but for its truth Dr. Verrall produces no sort of warrant. This peculiarity, he next assumes, was a well-known tradition to the audience before whom the play was acted. Lastly, he assumes that this tradition, perfectly familiar to the theatre-goers in A. C. 458, had vanished temporarily forty years later—vanished so completely that Euripides, a professional playwright, and tolerably conversant with the stock-in-trade of his craft, had no notion of its existence. This is a large assumption with reference to a poet who gives us those quaint survivals of naïve tradition that are embedded in the "Bacchae" and the "Iphigeneia among the Taurians"; but the assumption becomes comic when we reflect that, at the representation of the "Choephori," Euripides was, in all probability, himself an alert and interested spectator, a young man of about twenty-two, and was therefore, *ex-hypothesi*, one of the audience on whose perfect familiarity with the peculiarities of the Pelopid family Æschylus had implicitly relied. In short, Dr. Verrall's flight of imagination reminds one of the bird of paradise: it is fascinatingly brilliant to look at, but it does not condescend to touch the vulgar ground of facts, and it does not appear to have a leg to stand on.

—The current number of the *Bulletin de Correspondance Hellénique* is occupied chiefly with the raw material of archæology—a collection of Phrygian inscriptions, partly anticipated by Mr. Ramsay, which are settling by degrees moot points in the geography of Asia Minor; and a descriptive list of hitherto inedited vases in the museum of the Louvre, which M. E. Pottier contributes towards a complete catalogue. The paper of most general interest is M. Kambanis's research as to the construction and period of the great works which drained Lake Copais in Bœotia. The system consisted of two parts, a network of canals and embankments connected with the natural outlets, or rock-tunnels, called "Katavothræ"; secondly, a supplementary subterranean tunnel, descending Mount Kephalári, and following its water-courses, connecting and discharging a series of sixteen shafts or wells, sunk at such intervals as to secure drainage of the mountain streams. The depth of the shafts varies from 18 to 63 metres; the length of the artificial tunnel is not less than 2,400 metres. The former syste makes use of the natural outlets, is carried o with more boldness than science, and displa in the stone-work of supporting walls a prim tive style which resembles that of Mycenæ a of the island of Gha close by. Hence M. Kar banis refers this workmanship, grandiose y naïve, to the Minyans, with whom Greek tr dition associated it. But the tunnel with i shafts, so precisely arranged and so accurate executed, is the calculated conception of man of science and the work of experienc hands. It may be compared with a subterr nean aqueduct about a mile long, pierc by Eupalinus through a mountain in Sam about the sixth century B. C.—a piece of wo not less astonishing than the pyramids Egypt; here, again, however, we find le science and accuracy than in the work at K phalári. For these reasons, M. Kambanis a signs this latter undertaking to Crates, an e gineer contemporary with Aristotle and Ale ander the Great, who in fact is mentioned Strabo as a "mining-engineer," a native Chalcis, engaged by the Bœotians to clean c and repair the channels which had becor choked and exposed the neighborhood to i undation. M. Kambanis expresses the highe admiration for the science, the workmanli skill, energy, and perseverance which cou pierce a tunnel so extensive through the ha rock of this region, with the primitive mea which the ancients had at their disposal.

—Criticism of missionaries and missiona methods on foreign soil is not usually receiv with gratitude or frequently acted upon, ho ever rational, when the strictures are fro "men of the world." In the *Japan Eva gelist*, the first number of which is just issu at Yokohama, we find some uncommonly go sense, and severe but needed criticism, by veteran American missionary. The facts states are eloquent in showing that of the s hundred missionaries, male and female, n in Japan, a good many of the older ones "perhaps a majority of cases"—have ma "a mistake that has narrowed the missionar field of usefulness, and has marred his li work." This mistake has been in not thoroug ly learning the Japanese language, or acquiring a vocabulary fitted for conversati and public discourse on religious subjects on In a country where universal politeness is t national characteristic and the slow growth a millennium, but few, comparatively, of t missionaries are able to talk in private or ma a public address on subjects most vital a timely to the Japanese. Unfortunately, th neglect of mastery of the language extends pen and ink also, for even when Japanese written it is transliterated into Roman char ters. The causes of this radically wrong p cedure lay in the visionary hopes, held out no less a personage than the late Arinori Mo that the vernacular would be either almost A glicised or wholly abolished, and also in t eagerness of the natives to learn English. far from its being a sin to spend time study of Japanese, so immensely enriched vocabulary during the past quarter of a c tury as to be almost a new language, Dr. Forest recommends the newer missionaries one-half of the total having come to Jap during the last five years—to spend th years in the exclusive study of this profoun interesting tongue, using both script a speech. "A nation of 40,000,000, with a h tory and traditions that inspire deepest verence for the past, cannot be made to bre from its language." Dr. De Forest claims th

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nly those able to master the vernacular hould be sent out as missionaries. He delores the fact that there are too many in the ield "who, though they stay here a century, vill not be able to use the language with accuacy or grace." The *Romaji Zasshi* (Roman-etter Magazine), though once enjoying a cirulation of over 6,000 copies, "has died a ingering death." The *Japan Evangelist* also ontains a translation of a powerful article on 'The Good and Evil Effects of Buddhism on Japanese] History," from the *Kokumin no Tomo* (The Nation's Friend), the Liberal daily ewspaper of Tokio.

ADAMS'S MASSACHUSETTS AND ITS HISTORIANS.

Massachusetts, Its Historians and Its History: An Object-Lesson. By Charles Francis Adams. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1893. Pp. iv, 110.

THOUGH easily read through at a sitting, this ittle brochure of Mr. Adams's is likely to ause more discussion than many a volume of nore bulky dimensions. In the form of lectures, the substance of which was delivered before the students of Harvard University in April, 1893, Mr. Adams has elaborated views of the history of Massachusetts in regard to eligious liberty, and of the treatment of that heme by Massachusetts historians, already ndicated in his 'Three Episodes,' published in 892, and in the spirit of Mr. Brooks Adams's 'Emancipation of Massachusetts.' It is needless to say that Mr. Adams has put his houghts in a form that is telling and brilliant, nd that holds the interest of the reader as it nust have held the attention of the Harvard ndergraduates.

To the author's thinking, the value of the istory of Massachusetts, as of any other land, s in its relation to the great human drama, 'The Emancipation of Man from Superstition nd Caste." In regard to the latter of the two hases of this world-wide struggle, Mr. Adams leclares: "The record of no community seems o me to be more creditable, more consistent, ior, indeed, more important," than that of Massachusetts. But "as respects Religious Toleration, . . . her record as a whole, and ntil a comparatively recent period, has been carcely even creditable."

That this story has been defended in its essential features by a great school of writers whom Mr. Adams designates as the "filio-pietistic," and of whom Palfrey may serve as a ype, is due, in the author's estimate, to a provincial neglect of the principle that, "in the study of history, there should be but one law for all. Patriotism, piety, and filial duty have nothing to do with it; they are, indeed, mere snares and sources of delusion." In reality, Mr. Adams holds, Massachusetts, in the person of her ministers and magistrates, "missed a great destiny" by rejecting Roger Williams, and Sir Harry Vane, and the Antinomians; and gave herself up to an intolerance as unworthy as that of Philip II. or Louis XIV., and even more indefensible, since the Puritans, unlike the sovereigns of Spain and France, sinned against better knowledge, refusing "to see a light which they had seen clearly enough in England."

This wilful and inexcusable intolerance, becoming the fixed policy of the commonwealth by the time of the Antinomian synod of 1637, led to a "theologico-glacial" period, lasting till 1761, during which, under the chilling influence of enforced uniformity, mental activity dwindled, and which has left as its typical products the works of Cotton Mather and Jonathan Edwards—"huge literary boulders deposited by the receding ice." The religious system of Edwards—of which the only feature, apparently, which impresses Mr. Adams is his overwrought picturings of future suffering—is the characteristic "outcome of his environment." The system of reasoning on which the theology of this glacial period was built up, "by putting a final stop to any intellectual movement, created a universal paralysis—this system had to be slowly outgrown." These "Calvinistic, orthodox tenets of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries constituted nothing more nor less than an outrage on human nature productive in all probability of no beneficial results whatever." On the contrary, they led to "phases of acute mania," of which the witchcraft delusion of 1691-92 and the "Great Awakening" of 1734-44 were the natural manifestation.

In all this *period*, Mr. Adams holds, the redeeming feature was "that political activity which in Massachusetts had from the very beginning flowed as a stream of living water beneath the thick ice-crust of theology." It was the dominance of this characteristic that gave distinction to the next period, 1761-1787, of which Mr. Adams conceives Benjamin Franklin and Samuel and John Adams to have been "more than any other typical of the environment." And this epoch passed over, after the suppression of Shays's rebellion, into the "scientific, or florescent," period, extending from 1788 to 1865. To this latter age alone Massachusetts letters belong, for

> "From Cotton Mather to Nathaniel Hawthorne is a long stride, but in Massachusetts literature there is no intermediate stepping-stone. The *Magnalia* was published in 1702; *Twice-Told Tales* in 1837, that year of profuse germination: and, between the two, so different and yet both distinct and unmistakable products of the Massachusetts mind, the one a boulder and the other a flower—between them there is —nothing."

This sweeping statement Mr. Adams qualifies with a reference to Franklin's autobiography as a "possible exception," and a recognition, in a note, that "Thanatopsis" appeared in 1817.

Now there can be no doubt that Mr. Adams's principle that history should be written without "filio-pietistic" bias is correct, and has been often sinned against by American historians. It is true, also, that effort has been made by the school which Mr. Adams in many ways justly criticises to gloss over and defend that which is not always defensible. Mr. Adams has spoken justly in saying elsewhere ('Three Episodes,' p. 575) that, in this matter of religious tolerance, "the Puritan exiles to New England showed that they were not in advance of their times. That they were not, was again an element of their strength; for they were essentially practical men, and not idealists." Nevertheless it seems clear that in his eagerness to make what is largely a valid criticism, Mr. Adams has gone to an extreme almost as excessive as that which he opposes.

The repressive policy of New England was one partly of political defence, partly of religious persecution, at least in its earlier manifestations. Massachusetts historians have usually made one phase or the other of this two-fold motive exclusively prominent. They have either, like Palfrey, largely ignored the conspicuous element of intolerance based on purely religious considerations, and excused almost everything on the plea of political necessity, or, like Mr. Adams, they have fixed attention only on the element of religious persecution, and have practically counted as nothing the exigencies of the political situation. But the repressive measures adopted against Roger Williams, the so-called Antinomians, and Robert Child with his associates, had a two-fold aim. In part they were designed to prevent any interference with the established religious system, and, as such, were religious persecutions worthy of Mr. Adams's condemnation; but in part, also, they were the product of a sincere political dread lest turmoil in the colony, or appeals to a hostile government at home, should cause the loss of Massachusetts independence. New England was not in the position of the Spain of Philip II. or the France of Louis XIV., where no real ground for political fear existed in the presence of a few dissenters from the national faith; it was not in the position of Holland, where actual war led to the toleration of all who would aid in the national defence (though the story of the Arminians shows how even Hollanders could persecute); it was a little land, sturdily trying to maintain its own conception of life and government in the face of a power able to crush it should disturbances at home or appeals to King or Parliament provoke English interference. And, in so far as its actions were based on political considerations, they do not deserve to be placed quite on a level with Spanish intolerance.

Nor is Mr. Adams's description of the character and effects of the "theologico-glacial epoch" without serious exaggeration. Compared with what has succeeded, it was undoubtedly narrow, repressive, one-sided. But, as compared with what had gone before in England, it was, when the people as a whole are taken into consideration, a period of intellectual training. Of all bodies of clergymen, Protestant or Catholic, the New England ministry was that most identified with the people and least jealous of lay interference. By the call of laymen the minister had his title to office, by the votes of laymen the affairs of the church were conducted, and early New England synods had as a rule a majority of laymen in their membership. New England was often majority-ridden, but priest-ridden it was never. And of all bodies of clergymen of the seventeenth century that of New England was the most rationalistic. It believed implicitly in the authoritative character of a divine revelation; but the interpretation of that revelation was entirely the work of the ordinary processes of the human mind. Reason, not tradition, or former councils, or established creeds, was from the first the only New England test. It was largely because Mrs. Hutchinson and the Quakers claimed another source of certainty on religious matters that they were so obnoxious to the Puritan. Now not only was this principle one which led inevitably, if slowly, to an intelligent religious freedom; it made the New England pulpit intellectual and argumentative, and it taught every Puritan congregation to think—for there was no insight into religious truth claimed by the ministry which was not held to be attainable through precisely the same processes by the unclerical man. As Mr. Adams has elsewhere pointed out ('Three Episodes,' p. 574), the Antinomian movement had nothing better to offer. One may venture further and hold that if this movement, from the repression of which Mr. Adams dates the Massachusetts ice-age, had triumphed, it would, by substituting mysticism for reason, have substituted a worse principle for a better.

Mr. Adams fails also to make due allowance

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for the practical teachings of the New England ministry and for the value of their work as a moral force. One feature of that instruction, certainly open to severe criticism, has attracted his notice; but picturings of future woe, however prevalent, formed only a fragment of New England religious teaching. An examination of the sermons of Edwards, for example, shows that the large majority were on themes recognized by religious teachers of all ages as of the highest practical importance. The excesses of the "Great Awakening" were, what one finds no hint of in Mr. Adams's pages, local and exceptional; the more fanatic aspects of the movement were combated by the faculties of Harvard and Yale and by leading ministers of Massachusetts and Connecticut. The preaching of the Rev. James Davenport, which he quotes, was no more typical of the pulpit of the colony of Connecticut, whose General Court sent him home, than that of William Miller of the New England of 1843.

Mr. Adams has designated the last of his periods as "florescent." The epithet is apt, for it describes its relationship to the epoch which he far less happily characterizes as "glacial." Flowers do not come from boulders. Florescence implies a period of unflowering growth, which is none the less true life. Nor is a comparison of the literary unproductivity of a country of scanty resources and cramped material life, like the New England of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, with the productivity of the mother country in the same period, quite adequate. Rather it should be judged by the standards of other English colonies, and, when tested thus, it had a general diffusion of intellectual vigor which they have not equalled, and its fruitage, when it came at last, was richer than any they have borne. It is not entirely, as Mr. Adams would have it, an illustration of "the *post ergo propter* fallacy" to hold that, where training has been followed by such results, the training cannot have been wholly an evil.

Massachusetts persecution was bad enough; but it was largely the working of the intolerance of a thinking community, engaged in an enterprise characterized by intensity of belief and threatened by considerable perils from without. It was not marked, in general, by personal vindictiveness. It was free from popular blood-thirstiness. It never took the deep hold on the people that it did in Spain or France. Detrimental it undoubtedly was; but that it, or the period of intense conviction of which it was one of the characteristics, did the full amount of harm that Mr. Adams holds it did, seems far from proved.

HUXLEY'S ESSAYS.

Method and Results: Essays. By Thomas H. Huxley. D. Appleton & Co. 1893.

HUXLEY'S collected essays are to appear in nine volumes, of which this is the first. It is well-printed and agreeable to read. An introductory autobiography will serve to remind readers what Huxley's real profession is. He has, to use his own language, "subordinated" his "ambition for scientific fame" to the "popularisation of science" (in his separate treatises) and (in his essays) to an "endless series of battles and skirmishes" with ecclesiasticism and other powers. Intellectual nettles are these essays, suggestive and stimulating to the point of painfulness. Though Huxley is not a physiologist, his branch of science lies near to physiology, and physiology borders close upon metaphysics; and a remarkably well-read man in philosophy (for an outsider) Huxley is. This goes to feed and strengthen his originality, and gives it breadth. At the same time, it greatly heightens the literary interest and animation of his essays. Not that he does not sometimes show that his reading has been hasty, and that the tedious operation of rumination, which is so necessary in philosophical thought, has been a little abridged. Thus, he adheres to the sect of English nominalism—the school of Ockham, Hobbes, Locke, Hartley, Berkeley, Hume, Bentham, and the Mills—without perceiving how antagonistic they are, upon the whole, to the spirit of science. One of the prime doctrines of these men, for instance, a doctrine inherited from the pre-scientific ages, is that all generalization is a *mere matter of convenience*. The scientific man, on the other hand, without theorizing about generals, implicitly holds that laws are really operative in nature, and that the classification he is so painfully trying to find out is *expressive of real facts*. In short, the two classes of thinkers take the *con* and the *pro* of the question concerning universals. As the printer's devil would have it, Huxley's opinion is expressed on the bottom of a right-hand page and the top of the following left-hand one. We read (p. 117): "Classification . . . is *merely a convenient* [turn over] *expression of . . . facts*"; which sounds like a patch-work of two sentences. He follows the Mills in speaking of Hobbes with an extravagance of laudation which is amazing, as coming from a scientific man. What! will you call that man a great reasoner who could write treatises to uphold a circle-squaring fallacy, and whom John Wallis, hardly a mathematician of the first class, could so utterly demolish as he did? What! will you speak of him as an exponent of the spirit of science who is known in physics only by his peculiarly virulent opposition to Boyle's method and its results, and whom Boyle, a weakish sort of disputant, laid out so handsomely? Huxley praises Hobbes's "vigorous English"; but Hobbes's style, both of writing and of thinking, as well as the chief substance of his doctrines, is borrowed, or closely imitated, from William of Ockham. Now Ockham was a brilliant thinker, and some people fancy there was something modern-like about his thought. Not a bit of it; another mind so completely steeped in scholasticism of the most intensely wordy kind can hardly be instanced. Hobbes was an original thinker, even if not a very great one, but his method of thinking is scholastic, wooden, what Huxley calls "*à priori*," and anti-scientific in the extreme. Two extraordinary ideas have come to the modern consciousness from Hobbes. One is the association of ideas, which he undoubtedly stole from Aristotle; and the other is the theory of Motives, which, though it has imposed upon the world, is, in the view of many modern psychologists, a mere logical jugglery, a circle-squarer's style of thought.

Two of the most impressive essays in this volume, making a fifth of its bulk, are devoted to the praise of Descartes as the great scientific philosopher of his age. In fact, when Huxley entitles this volume 'Method and Results,' he means thereby to declare that the 'Discours de la méthode' is the true exposition of the method of science. More profitable reading than these two essays of Huxley on Descartes the literature of our time has not afforded. Nevertheless, it is impossible that the judgment of history upon Descartes should be reversed. That judgment is that while his geometry was simply the making of modern mathematics, all his other ideas proved utterly unprofitable and unscientific. Prof. Huxley may persuade us to dock the last epithet, but, about the other, his tory cannot be wrong.

"There are some men," says Huxley, "who are counted great because they represent the actuality of their own age, and mirror it as it is. Such an one was Voltaire, of whom it was epigrammatically said, 'he expressed every body's thoughts better than anybody.' But there are other men who attain greatness because they embody the potentiality of their own day, and magically reflect the future. They express the thoughts which will be everybody's two or three centuries after them. Such an one was Descartes."

What a thing that to say of a man! And Huxley fairly makes it out. How can it be that, for all that, Cartesianism was scientifically barren, except in geometry, while there so richly fertile? It was a pretty complete theory of logic, nature, and the soul—the three categories under which Hegel has well summed up philosophy. But systematic completeness, as Hegel's own system well shows, is about the idlest decoration that can be attached to a philosophy. The great desideratum for a philosophy, its indispensable condition, was first stated by a thinker whom Huxley treats with uncalled-for *hauteur*—Auguste Comte; that is to say, a philosophy, to be fruitful, must be "positive"—it must lead to unmistakable consequences comparable in great detail with observation. If it does that, and if those consequences are verified to any considerable extent, it will aid the advance of knowledge. It is that which has made evolution, in the definite form given to it by Darwin, a great agent of discovery. But was not this character possessed by the theories of Descartes? Perhaps; but if they were "positive" theories, they were not theories which there was any prospect of being able to put to the test to any considerable extent, then and there, in the state of mathematics and of observational means which were at command. Hence, though Huxley can show us *now* that the Cartesian ideas had a scientific character, yet, for practical purposes, they had not that character for the men of that time. But this was not their only defect. It has been repeatedly pointed out by students of the history of mechanics that Descartes's theories really grievously offended the very rule of philosophizing upon which he had himself so much insisted. They were not *clear and distinct*. Worse than that—for that, in itself, would not have been fatal—they were not capable of being made clear and distinct. Like the works of many other philosophers, at first glance they seemed beautifully sharp-outlined, but, when closely studied, they were found to be a composite of nebulæ which no scrutiny could resolve. They wanted that fundamental perspicuity to which so few writers except mathematicians attain, which consists in this, that, unintelligible as they may seem at first reading, yet when they are closely studied they are seen to be based upon the distinctions which were pertinent to the problem.

In his long and deeply interesting discussion of Descartes's theory that animals are automatons, Huxley manifests the great disadvantage under which a comparative anatomist must labor who is not an engineer, or who has not a practical acquaintance with analytical mechanics. He thinks he makes out very clearly that animals (man included) act like machines. But he uses neither the language nor conceptions of dynamics. Far from convincing a student of mechanics, he leaves him profoundly convinced of the disparity between machines and animals. He talks about "causes," but the student of dynamics has nothing to do with

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"causes." That a machine could possibly act as a frog deprived of his front brain is described as acting is what Huxley does not make at all clear to a man whose business has lain with machines and with mechanical systems.

Another fifth of the volume is taken up with a review of the Progress of Science in the first fifty years of the reign of Victoria, 1837–1887. Among its many suggestions, we have only space to notice the following:

"The doctrine of evolution, so far as the present physical cosmos is concerned, postulates the fixity of the rules of operation of the causes of motion in the material universe. . . . But it is possible to raise the question whether this universe . . . may not itself be a product of evolution from a universe of such matter, in which the manifestations of energy were not definite—in which, for example, our laws of motion held good for some units and not for others, or for the same units at one time and not at another—and which would therefore be a real epicurean chance-world? For myself, I must confess that I find the air of this region of speculation too rarified for my constitution, and I am disposed to take refuge in ignoramus et ignorabimus."

It is always unphilosophical to say *ignorabimus*, and the shores of science are strewn with the wrecks of such predictions. It is particularly rash to base such a prediction on the circumstance that the author of it would be perplexed to see how the problem is to be made amenable to exact reasoning.

One-third of the volume is taken up with recent essays concerning the general theory of politics. They are very far below the level of Huxley's work of twenty years ago, and, in comparison, seem almost mediocre, although they contain a good deal of interesting information concerning the history of some of the theories. The pretence that one can see no meaning in the statement that all men are born free and equal, would hardly have been patiently tolerated by our Revolutionary forefathers. Huxley reviles Rousseau as a mere sentimentalist. Of course, Rousseau was a sentimentalist by conviction, and it is quite true that, since he wrote, the world has received terrible proof of the evil of exaggerated sentimentalism. Still, civilization rests, and must rest, mainly upon sentiment. Prof. Huxley seems to pass a sweeping condemnation upon the application of what he calls "*à priori* reasoning" to questions of justice. By "*à priori* reasoning" he means deduction from general principles, such as Rousseau practised; but Huxley's general condemnation of this mode of argumentation makes it incumbent upon him to explain how he would have a court of justice reason. He even goes so far as to sneer at the principle of toleration. Where would Huxley, or any other evolutionist who lived in the sixties, have been without that principle? The principle of toleration is intimately connected with the fundamental principle of science, for it can have no rational basis except the acknowledgment that nothing is absolutely certain. In those branches of physics where knowledge is the most perfect, in metrology, geodesy, and astronomy, no self-respecting man would consent to put forward an assertion without coupling with it his estimate of its *probable error*. What scientific men mean by "science" is not knowledge, but *investigation*. Now the scientific man will not shut off any question whatever as too sacred or too well known for further investigation, and therefore he must tolerate every opinion. But, further, in regard to questions of politics and the like, the scientific man must admit that not only can the true alternative not be certainly named, but also that no formula can be framed all whose possible consequences shall be just; and for that reason it is most desirable that, alongside of the formula which is less erroneous, the opposite formula which is more erroneous should constantly have its advocates, so that it may not be forgotten when the moment comes at which it is to be preferred to the other. In this point of view, what Huxley calls "the pet doctrine of modern liberalism, that the toleration of error is a good thing in itself," appears to be not, after all, out of harmony with the ideas of science.

In the last essay Huxley discusses, in an ever-interesting manner, the opposing claims of Individualism, or *laissez-faire*, and Socialism, or, as he chooses to call it Reglementation, and reaches the easy conclusion that neither can be admitted as an absolute principle. There, rather lamely, he leaves the matter, without making the obvious remark that evolutionism supplies a third political maxim, perhaps superior to either of the others. For, the moment we admit that man was developed from an ape, whether suddenly or by insensible degrees, we are led to surmise that the rudiments of government antedated humanity. At any rate, government must be considered as one of those adaptive characters of the *genus homo* which result from development. This is true not only of government generally, but of each special form of it, such as the United States Constitution. Now, since the characters of races are generally highly adaptive, and are also unchangeable, except under the operation of those almost cosmical causes which gradually bring about changes in races, the evolutionary philosopher will not attempt to do more than deflect very slightly the actions of these forces; whence will result a maxim of political conduct something like this: Aid only such changes as are either inevitable or else both natural and beneficial; and so act that those changes may be brought about with the least total harm. If we were to write *integral* in place of *total*, it would make the formula sound more mathematical; and sound is almost everything in matters like this.

Huxley himself has clearly put his finger upon that one of his qualities by virtue of which he has for so long commanded the respect and admiration of the public. It lies "in the conviction which has grown with my growth and strengthened with my strength, that there is no alleviation for the sufferings of mankind except veracity of thought and of action, and the resolute facing of the world as it is when the garment of make-believe by which pious hands have hidden its uglier features is stripped off." The hopes and consolations of religion will, we believe, never be reinstated in their position of authority (if at all) until this lesson of intellectual integrity has been thoroughly learned and accepted with humility.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Edited by James A. H. Murray. Part VIII., Sect. 1. Crouchmas—Czech. Completing Vol. II. (C). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1893.

Dr. Murray's Christmas gift to the impatient waiters on his great enterprise was this thin instalment, most welcome as enabling them to bind up the second volume of the Dictionary. It now appears (1) that we have in hand the whole of vol. i. (A and B, pp. 1,240); (2) the whole of vol. ii. (C, pp. 1,308); (3) part of vol. iii. (D and E); (4) that, C being co-extensive with J, K, N, Q, V, X, Y, Z, and three-quarters of O, another volume is thus accounted for; (5) that still another will be required for S, which is somewhat in excess of C. The remaining ten letters of the alphabet will, we estimate, fill six volumes more, making a grand total of eleven. Just about one-fifth of the work, therefore, has been accomplished in print.

With all this fulness, much remains to be discovered. Thus, to choose an example from the section before us, the origin of the word *cub* is quite unknown: "it has been compared with a rare Old Irish word *cuib*, dog, but no historical connection has been traced." The etymology of *cuddle* is uncertain; that of *culvert* obscure, though the word goes no further back than 1770; that of *curse* untraceable beyond late Old English *curs* ("no word of similar form and sense is known in Teutonic, Romanic, or Celtic"); that of *cut*, in the sense of lot, is not surely to be found in the Welsh *cwt*, and the word is not to be identified, as in most dictionaries, with *cut*, 'the act or result of cutting,' for this occurs only in "modern English, known from the sixteenth century, while *cut*, 'lot,' goes back before 1300, standing quite alone," without the sense just cited to explain or support it, and without the associated spellings *kyt*, *kit*, *ket*, of the past participle of the verb to *cut*.

"The latter circumstance," adds Dr. Murray, "opposes any such suggestion as that *cut*, 'lot,' is an absolute use of the past participle, meaning 'the cut stick or straw,' 'the cut or marked thing drawn,' a use which would, besides, be very difficult to admit at so early a date. There is no cognate word, and no derivative from any word meaning 'cutting,' used in the other Teutonic languages; in these the word *lot*, with its cognates, is the native term. It is evident that *drawing cuts* has been from the thirteenth century a more popular form of sortilege, or a more popular and colloquial expression for it, than 'casting lots.'"

That this expression is almost as obsolescent in England as it is in this country may be inferred from the fact that Dr. Murray, after Swift in 1745, quotes only Kingsley in 'Westward Ho' (1855), "We three will draw cuts for the honor of going with him."

Curse, to return for a moment to this independent formation, is not related to *cross*, as some have suggested without supplying a particle of evidence; but the latter enormously fruitful word has still some representatives in the closing part of the letter C—as, *cruise*, *crusade*, and *crux*, a 'difficulty which it torments or troubles one greatly to interpret or explain, a thing which puzzles the ingenuity.' In the case of *crux* we seem to discern the utility of the little circulars emanating from time to time from the Scriptorium, with lists of "special quotations wanted." In list X an earlier quotation than 1859 was desired for *crux*, and we now have Sheridan, 1718, and Sir William Hamilton, 1830, anticipating Maurice, 1859.

Popular etymology is well illustrated in three instances: (1) *curtail*, "originally *curtal (l)* . . . and still stressed on the first syllable by Johnson, 1773; but already in the sixteenth century the second syllable began to be associated with the word *tail* . . . and perhaps by some in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries with French *tailler*, to cut, whence the spelling *curtail*, *curt-tail*, *curtail*, and the current pronunciation, given without qualification by Walker, 1791"; (2) *curtal-ax*, "a much perverted form of the word *cutlass* (in the sixteenth-century *coutelas*, *coutelase*, *cuttleass*, etc.), through the intermediate perversions, *cut(t)le-ax*, and *curtelas*, *courtelace*, *curtelace*, the peculiarities of which it combines. The form *curtal ax*, with its variants, was so distinct from *cutlass* that it acquired a kind of

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permanent standing, the identification of the final part with *ax* being favored by the use of the weapon in delivering slashing blows"; (3) *court-lodge* for *curtilage* (*i. e.*, *cortil*, *courtil*, little court or garth, plus the Romanic suffix *-age*, which plain folks, however, took for a compound of *court* with *lodge*, *ledge*, etc.).

The literate are responsible for the "merely graphic *b*" in *crumb* (*crum*), which began to be added in the sixteenth century," and "probably appeared first in the derivative *crumble* (where it has also invaded the pronunciation), after words of French origin like *humble;* there was also the apparent analogy of Old English words like *dumb*, where *b* was retained in the spelling, though no longer pronounced: cf. *thumb*." *Culprit*, which is "known (as a word) only from 1678," is an abbreviation by the legal profession. An abundance of evidence is cited by Dr. Murray in confirmation of the legal tradition "that when the prisoner had pleaded 'Not guilty,' the Clerk of the Crown replied with, '*Culpable: prest d'averrer nostre bille*,' i. e., '*Guilty;* [and I am] *ready* to aver our indictment'; that this reply was noted on the roll in the form *cul. prist*, etc.; and that, at a later time, after the disuse of law French, this formula was mistaken for an appellation addressed to the accused" instead of a negation of his plea, etc. Among the educated, again, *cult*, 'worship,' was used in the seventeenth century, perhaps direct from the Latin, then went out of fashion, and is rarely met with till the middle of the nineteenth, "when often spelt *culte* as in French." Indebtedness to the French has been masked, on the other hand, in the locution *curry favor* (1510), which is the older *curry favel* (1400), from "Old French *estriller fauvel*, . . . to curry the chestnut horse, hence, to employ deceit or hypocrisy, to gloze." Deliberate inventions are exemplified in *cyclone*, "a name introduced in 1848 by H. Piddington, as a general name for all storms or atmospheric disturbances in which the wind has a circular or whirling course." Carlyle alone has found *culottic* a handy synonym for respectable, and its noun *culottism* for respectability; nor do the French appear to have been tempted to appropriate them. Herman Melville is first cited as having given literary currency to the form *curio*, for curiosity (1851).

The historical function of the Dictionary is well displayed under *curfew*, beginning with the definition :

"(1.) a. A regulation in force in mediæval Europe by which, at a fixed hour in the evening, indicated by the ringing of a bell, fires were to be covered over or extinguished; also, the hour of evening when this signal was given, and the bell rung for the purpose. b. Hence, the practice of ringing a bell at a fixed hour in the evening, usually eight or nine o'clock, continued after the original purpose was obsolete, and often used as a signal in connection with various municipal or communal regulations; the practice of ringing the evening bell still survives in many towns."

Here we will introduce the illustration borrowed from Lyell's 'Second Visit to the United States' (1850): "Every evening at nine o'clock, a great bell, or curfew, tolls in the market-place of Montgomery, after which no colored man is permitted to be abroad without a pass." Then Dr. Murray takes up the parable :

"The primary purpose of the curfew appears to have been the prevention of conflagrations arising from domestic fires left unextinguished at night. The earliest English quotations make no reference to the original sense of the word; the *curfew* being already in the thirteenth century merely a name for the ringing of the evening bell, and the time so marked. . . . The statement that the curfew was introduced into England by William the Conqueror as a measure of political repression has been current since the sixteenth century, but rests on no early historical evidence. See Freeman's 'Norman Conquest' (1875), iii., 185, as to what 'seems to be the origin of the famous and misrepresented curfew.'"

We conclude our already too extended remarks by observing that the true, and only, English use of *cui bono?* is, as appears from the earliest to the latest quotations, "what good?" "to what end?" "the ultimate purpose?" The classic sense "who profits?" in other words, is not good English, and it is impertinent to hold us to it.

The Letters of Lady Burghersh, afterwards Countess of Westmoreland, from Germany and France during the Campaign of 1813-14. Edited by her daughter, Lady Rose Weigall. London: John Murray. 1893.

Priscilla, the daughter of William Wellesley Pole, afterwards Lord Maryborough, granddaughter of the musical Earl of Mornington, and niece of the great Duke of Wellington, married, in 1811, Lord Burghersh, eldest son of the Earl of Westmoreland. Lady Burghersh was then only eighteen. Lord Burghersh had been aide-de-camp to the Duke of Wellington in the Peninsula, and two years after his marriage he was appointed military attaché at the headquarters of the allied sovereigns in Germany, and was ordered to Berlin. But all French and Dutch ports were closed to English vessels, and Hamburg had again been seized by Bonaparte, so that the journey had to be made from Yarmouth to the south of Sweden, and thence across the Baltic to Stralsund, on the coast of Prussia. Lady Burghersh had hitherto been so delicate that her family urged her not to attempt such a journey, but as she had no children to leave behind, she determined to accompany her husband. After being driven back to Yarmouth and delayed there by contrary winds for nearly a fortnight, Lord and Lady Burghersh landed in Sweden after an eleven days' passage across the North Sea. From the landing-place they had to walk most of the way to Gothenburg with nothing to eat but Swedish cakes, baked only twice in the year and as hard as stone, and nothing to drink but a little rum and water. From Gothenburg they drove in their own carriage to Ystad, the port in the south of Sweden at which they were to embark for Prussia. This drive of 250 English miles occupied four days from eight in the morning till midnight; horses could be hired, but the rope harness had to be bought. Lady Burghersh had everything to arrange, for her husband was much occupied, and her French maid (afterwards most efficient) had not recovered from the voyage, and would only say, "J'ai tant souffert que ma mémoire ne me sert plus." Beds had to be carried, for the inns provided only an empty room of a few feet square in which to eat and sleep. Lady Burghersh writes: "We do very well. I have never seen a carpet or curtain, basin or jug, but we send the servants into the yard to snatch up the pans the chickens feed out of, or the pails from the stable, and make use of them."

The passage of seventy miles from Ystad to Stralsund took three days, and the latter part had to be made in a galliot, "a small thing with one mast and no cabin," so that Lady Burghersh and her maid sat in a boat on deck. Just as the galliot entered the harbor at Stralsund, an English brig, laden with nine thousand barrels of ball cartridges, blew up. "The balls and splinters of the ship came rattling down like a thick shower of hail. Every man fell flat on his face except B, who threw himself over me." On looking up, the whole sky was covered with black smoke, and not a single vestige of the ship was left; the effect on the sea was exactly as if it boiled. Lady Burghersh was so wholly intent on the magnificence of the sight that, as she says, she neither jumped nor trembled, but said to her terrified maid, "Mais regardez donc; comme c'est beau." Nobody was hurt on board the galliot, but houses were wrecked two miles off.

The journey south from Stralsund to Berlin occupied nearly a week, although Lord and Lady Burghersh were in their carriage nineteen hours out of the twenty-four. They reached Berlin just after the great battle of Leipzig: prisoners were arriving in large numbers, including several French marshals, and nearly forty thousand wounded were in the city. The ladies of Berlin had sold their jewels, and had sent their horses to the army; and at the daily receptions of Princess Radziwill everybody was busied in scraping lint. Before long, Lord Burghersh had to follow the allied forces to Frankfort, and his young wife, after enduring three weeks of suspense as to his fate, determined to make her own way thither. Accompanied by her maid, and attended by an English officer, who was an old friend of her husband's, Lady Burghersh undertook this journey of nine days, travelling in the depths of a German winter from two hours before daylight till ten o'clock at night. She writes:

"We have come all along the line of the French retreat, and, as it is not a month since they passed, the roads are covered with dead horses and the remains of dead men. . . . Every bridge blown up, every village burnt or pulled down, fields completely devastated, orchards all turned up. None of the country people will bury the French or their horses, so there they remain lying all over the fields and roads, with millions of crows feeding: the river Saale full of dead bodies."

One night Lady Burghersh had to pass in a wretched cottage crowded with soldiers; she lay on the carriage cushions spread on the floor of a windowless, fireless room, and in that bitter November night her only rug was a great coat. Yet, she says, "I slept well, and set off merrily next morning." Frankfort, where Lady Burghersh at last rejoined her husband, was full of sovereigns and ambassadors, the only women besides herself being two Russian grand-duchesses, sisters of the Emperor, and the Princess of Thurn and Taxis, sister of the late Queen Louise of Prussia. The squabbling and indecision among all the different powers was incredible, and Lady Burghersh often longed for her firm and decided uncle Wellington to be the one head to whom all should look up. The Emperor Alexander, in speaking to her of the recent campaign in Russia, regretted that he had not had such a commander as Wellington. As it was, he added, "c'est que le bon Dieux nous a servi de capitaine, et que l'exemple des Anglais nous a donné du courage." A month later Lady Burghersh writes: "We are just as far from any decision. The Emperor Francis and all his people are bent on one plan; the Emperor Alexander is directly against it; and the King of Prussia disapproves of both. They are all equally positive and obstinate." At length the Austrians prevailed, and a move was made to Lörrach, a village close to Basle. Lord and Lady Burghersh had here only one small room, and the aide-de-camp slept on straw in the kitchen, but Lady Burghersh made English tea every evening, and all the

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generals and their respective staffs met in her room to discuss the position and to receive reports. The bombardment of Huningue near Basle was going on, and Prince Schwarzenberg, the Austrian general, had a hut built from which Lady Burghersh could watch the progress of the siege by day. At night she saw from her bed the shells bursting, but, after a short time, the noise ceased to disturb her sleep. Household troubles did, however, annoy her. The German landlady threatened to drive Lady Burghersh's chasseur out of the house, and the English footman declared with tears that he should lose his senses because his country was insulted.

Early in 1814 Lady Burghersh followed her husband to the headquarters of the allied forces at Langres in France; her first stage was thirty-one hours, during which time she never left her carriage. At that period the allies were everywhere received with open arms, and Lady Burghersh, while rejoicing as a wife in the probable termination of the war, adds: "As a soldier I must think it a pity to have had the power and not to have crushed that wretch [Bonaparte]." She accompanied or followed the allied forces from place to place, mourning over the misery and destitution around her. The troops had been insulted at Langres, and from that time no efforts of the commanders could either maintain discipline or prevent pillage throughout the greater part of the armies; the Cossacks knew no law, and robbed friends and foes alike; the streets of the towns were crowded with women and children begging for food, and Lady Burghersh acknowledges herself to be sick of war and all its horrors. A congress, consisting of six members, was opened at Châtillon, but they did little but give great dinners to each other, and the uncertainty and indecision continued. Lady Burghersh wrote from Châtillon: "I don't know what they mean to do, but I know that Bonaparte is employing all his energy, all his activity, and all his power, and that we are dilatory, uncertain, and (*entre nous*) frightened."

Lord Burghersh was again separated from his wife, and for a fortnight they had no news of each other. At last, quite at the end of March, Schwartzenberg gained a decisive victory over Bonaparte, and a few days later the allies entered Paris. Lady Burghersh missed this magnificent sight, as she had had to retire to Dijon, in order to avoid Bonaparte and his troops. Her advisers, Lord Aberdeen, Lord Castlereagh, and Prince Metternich, entreated her to wait before attempting the journey to Paris, but without consulting them further she set out with only her maid and footman. She was once arrested on the way, but was detained only for a few hours, and, after a journey of three days and nights, she joined Lord Burghersh in Paris. Lord Aberdeen and Lord Castlereagh never forgave her for having reached Paris before them.

On the conclusion of the war, Lord Burghersh entered the diplomatic service, and was British minister at Florence for sixteen years, at Berlin for nine years, and at Vienna for six years. Lady Burghersh had twelve children, and although she thoroughly enjoyed the cultivated and brilliant society with which she and Lord Burghersh were everywhere surrounded, her heart was always in her home. She survived her husband for twenty years, and died early in 1879, at the age of eighty-six.

The Paris Law Courts: Sketches of Men and Manners. Translated from the French by Gerald P.. Moriarty. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1894.

THE illustrations with which this work is adorned will be a sufficient warning to the grave student of legal institutions that it is not intended for him. Were this warning not sufficient, the fact that the translation here presented is based upon a French original, 'Le Palais de Justice de Paris,' which was produced by members of the "Association de la Presse Judiciare," would stamp the character of the work unmistakably. The point of view taken by the journalist engaged in gathering at the courts such items as the public are supposed to delight in, is altogether different from that of the jurist or legal antiquary. But it must be conceded that the art of graphic writing is not one in which the authors of works upon comparative jurisprudence have excelled, and that the idea we get of the English courts from Dickens's stories, although somewhat distorted, is more vivid than that obtainable from other sources. Dickens's pictures, however, were generally caricatures and were always exaggerated, while the aim of the French reporters in this enterprise is a serious one, and is carried out with as much sobriety as the nature of this class of writers admits of. We have accordingly an unquestionably accurate description of whatever is to be seen by the eyes and heard by the ears at the Palais de Justice in Paris—so much so that a careful reader would feel quite at home were he to visit these halls, and would be able to understand the general movement of business with sufficient clearness. Further than this we cannot go, for we know little more of the nature of the law that is administered in France after reading this book than we did before; and, although we are constantly reminded of the differences in the procedure, we are not able to form any consistent idea of them. In fact, as the authors probably have no acquaintance with other systems of practice, and had no intention of writing for readers outside of their own country, we could hardly expect to get more than a superficial view of the subject.

Yet if we bear in mind that our jurisprudence is distinguished from that of France by two fundamental peculiarities—the use of the jury in civil actions, and the limitation of the functions of the judge in criminal proceedings to the application and exposition of the law—it is easy to see that we are upon familiar ground. We listen to the same complaints of the delays of the law, of excessive costs, of numberless fees, of absurd technicalities, of judicial arrogance, of the hardship of litigation for the poor, etc. The accounts of the different courts, it is true, show that the methodical French mind has carried the division of judicial labor much farther than we have; but, human nature being pretty much the same everywhere, the character of the grievances that are brought before the courts is not very different. Nor is the aspect of French litigants and lawyers and criminals anything peculiar, as we may learn from both the text and the illustrations. Of these, by the way, we may speak strongly. They are as a rule spirited and suggestive, evidently taken from life; and though with a touch of caricature, yet true and good character-drawing. Perhaps we should not say that they were cleverer work than the text, which is as clear as a guide-book and as sprightly as a column of gossip; but they so forcibly suggest the familiar types of our own court-houses that we appreciate them more readily.

Although trial by jury takes place in criminal cases in France, it has its peculiarities. The number of jurymen is very small, thirty-six being expected to try all the cases of a term, and the number of challenges is limited to twelve to each party. Hence the constitution of the jury, which of course is frequently of the utmost consequence, becomes a matter upon which the highest talents are exercised by the advocates. The antecedents of these three dozen men are carefully studied by counsel, both for the prosecution and the defence; their political opinions, the religious views of their wives, their family connections are all minutely investigated. In a case tried a few years ago in Corsica the selection of the jury was so carefully attended to that when the number was at last complete, the procureur-général leaned toward the counsel for the defendant and said, with a smile, "Your man is acquitted by ten votes to two." "So he is," answered the other when he looked over the list, and so it proved to be when the verdict was given. Neither evidence nor eloquence had affected the foreordained result. But we fear that stories as bad as this could be told of English juries.

Upon the whole we may say that those who want a good guide-book to the Paris courts, an intelligible account of the manner in which business is there transacted, and some French moralizing of a more or less edifying character, will find their requirement satisfactorily met by this book.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbotsford: The Personal Relics and Antiquarian Treasures of Sir Walter Scott. Illustrated. London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. $25.
Adams, Prof. G. B. Civilization during the Middle Ages. Scribners. $2.50.
Anti-Higher Criticism; or, Testimony to the Infallibility of the Bible. Hunt & Eaton. $1.50.
Arnold, Ethel M. Platonics: A Study. London: Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.
Arnold, Matthew. Sohrab and Rustum. Maynard, Merrill & Co. 12 cents.
Atkinson, Philip. The Electric Transformation of Power. London: Crosby, Lockwood & Son; New York: D. Van Nostrand Co.
Bayne, Thomas. Scott's Lord of the Isles. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Benson, E. F. Six Common Things. London: Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.
Bercy, Paul. French Reader for Advanced Classes. W. R. Jenkins. $1.25.
Bryce, James. Legal Studies in the University. Macmillan. 35 cents.
Buckingham, Rev. S. G. The Life of William A. Buckingham, the War Governor of Connecticut. Springfield, Mass.: W. F. Adams Co.
Carter, A. C. R. The Year's Art. 1894. London: J. S. Virtue & Co.
Castle, Egerton. English Book Plates, Ancient and Modern. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $3.75
Chauncey, Shelton. The Greek Madonna. G. W. Dillingham.
Cherbuliez, Victor. A Phidian Horse: Art and Archæology on the Acropolis. Philadelphia: John Wanamaker.
Coxe, Brinton. An Essay on Judicial Power and Unconstitutional Legislation. Philadelphia: Kay & Bro.
Croquet, C. P. du. College Preparatory French Grammar. W. R. Jenkins.
Cunningham, Robert. The Negro as He Is: A Story. Independence, Mo.: *Sentinel* Print. 50 cents.
Dickson, H. N. Meteorology: The Elements of Weather and Climate. London: Methuen & Co.
Dupuis, Prof. N. F. Elements of Synthetic Solid Geometry. Macmillan. $1.60.
Flint, Prof. Robert. History of the Philosophy of History. Scribners. $4.
Freshfield, D. W., and Wharton, Capt. W. J. L. Hints to Travellers, Scientific and General. 7th ed. London: Royal Geographical Society.
Gamgee, Prof. Arthur. A Text-Book of the Physiological Chemistry of the Animal Body. Vol. II. The Physiological Chemistry of Digestion. Macmillan. $4.50.
Garland, Hamlin. Prairie Songs. Illustrated. Stone & Kimball. $1.25.
Grannis, Anna J. Skipped Stitches: Verses. Keene, N. H.: Darling & Co.
Greenwood, Frederick. The Lover's Lexicon. Macmillan. $1.50.
Grosart, A. B. A Bower of Delights from the Works of Nicholas Breton. [Elizabethan Library.] Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Gunnison, Almon. Wayside and Fireside Rambles. Boston: Universalist Publishing House.
Harrington, W. B. Our Dick. San Francisco: C. A. Murdock & Co. 50 cents.
Harrison, J. P. Archæologia Oxoniensis. English Architecture before the Conquest. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Hazell's Annual for 1894. London: Hazell, Watson & Viney; New York: Scribners. $1.50.
Hektoen, Dr. Ludvig. The Technique of Post-Mortem Examinations. Chicago: W. T. Keener Co. $1.75.
Heller, Prof. Otto. Meyer's Gustav Adolf's Page. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co. 30 cents.
Herbert, George. The Temple: Sacred Poems and Private Ejaculations. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.

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Hinsdale, Prof. B. A. How to Study and Teach History, with Particular Reference to the History of the United States. Appletons. $1.50.
Holyoake, G. J. The History of the Rochdale Pioneers. 3d ed., revised and enlarged. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $1.
Irving, W. Rip van Winkle, and the Legend of Sleepy Hollow. Illustrated. Macmillan. $2.
Jenks, Edward. Walpole: A Study in Politics. London: Methuen & Co.
Jerrold, Walter. Bon Mots of Charles Lamb and Douglas Jerrold. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 75 cents.
Johnes, Winifred. Miss Gwynne, Bachelor. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Lang, Andrew. Prince Ricardo of Pantouflia. London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co.; New York: Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Laveleye, Emile de. Essais et Etudes. Première Série. 1861—1875. Paris: Félix Alcan.
Lethaby, W. R. Leadwork, Old and Ornamental and for the most part English. Macmillan. $1.25.
Lee, Vernon. Althea: A Second Book of Dialogues on Aspirations and Duties. London: Osgood, McIlvaine & Co.
Long, Miss Lily A. Apprentices to Destiny. Merrill & Baker. $1.
Mallory, Sir Thomas. Le Morte Darthur. Macmillan. $7.
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